

NEW YORK STATE DEPARTMENT OF ENVIRONMENTAL CONSERVATION

# Community Air Screen Program

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**NYSDEC Region 1 – Applicants: Brookhaven Village and South Yaphank Civic  
Associations  
Brookhaven, North Bellport and Yaphank, Suffolk County**

## Ambient Air Quality Screening Report Brookhaven Community

**August 12, 2014**

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## **About the Community Air Screen Program**

The Community Air Screen (CAS) program was launched by the New York State Department of Environmental Conservation (DEC) on April 25, 2012. The purpose of the CAS program is to better understand toxic air pollutants at the community level with the help of local community groups and interested citizens. DEC received 42 applications for the CAS program and accepted 23 for participation. Sampling by community groups and interested citizens began in August 2012 and is expected to continue through winter 2013.

DEC provides the CAS sampling equipment, field log and instructions. The participants collect a 1-hour air sample and return the equipment to the DEC laboratory where the sample is analyzed specifically for 43 toxic air pollutants.<sup>1</sup> DEC staff evaluate whether the sample results are of potential health concern and warrant further investigation.

First, the short-term monitoring results are evaluated to assess whether any measured air concentrations were of immediate public health concern in comparison to short-term health-based air concentration values derived by DEC. Second, DEC uses a number of factors to determine whether the results warrant further sampling on a case-by-case basis. One criterion when evaluating the need for follow-up sampling is to compare the measured air concentrations with long-term health-based air concentration values derived by DEC. Both the short-term and long-term comparison values are further discussed in the *DEC's Health-based Concentration Values* section. Next, the CAS sample results are compared with ambient air monitoring concentrations from DEC's air toxics monitoring network, since many of the toxic air pollutants assessed in the CAS program are frequently detected at other locations in the State. This comparison is done to evaluate whether the results from the program sampling are significantly different from air monitoring concentrations at other locations in the State. Lastly, staff may consider other information depending on the community and what is known about releases from sources in the area sampled.

## **Background**

DEC posted a notification for applicants to participate in the CAS program in April 2012. Forty-two applications were received. The applications from the Brookhaven Village and South Yaphank Civic Associations<sup>2</sup> were among 23 accepted to the program and among five accepted from Suffolk County. In July 2013, three 1-hour air samples were obtained in the Brookhaven area and analyzed for toxic air pollutants. Follow-up 1-hour sampling was conducted in April 2014 in response to the selection of the sample location and the results for one of the samples taken in July sampling. All results were evaluated for potential air quality concerns. This report provides details on that evaluation.

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<sup>1</sup> Toxic air pollutants are those pollutants which are known or suspected to cause cancer or other serious health effects, such as reproductive effects, birth defects, or harmful environmental effects.

<sup>2</sup> The applications from Brookhaven Village and South Yaphank Civic Associations were submitted separately. The two applications were combined since applicants shared concern about the Brookhaven Landfill. The groups will be further referenced as Brookhaven community groups for this report.

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### ***Applicants Concern***

The applicants expressed concern about dust and odors from the town of Brookhaven landfill. Both applications referenced the evacuation of a nearby school in March 2011, due to strong odors from the landfill.<sup>3</sup> The applicants also expressed concern about a trap and skeet range located in the neighborhood and the close proximity of residents and schools to these sources.

### ***Brookhaven Community***

The samples were collected in the census-designated places (CDP)<sup>4</sup> of North Bellport, Yaphank and Brookhaven in the town of Brookhaven. Most of the industrial sites are located along Horseblock and Patchogue Yaphank Roads. The types of facilities in and near the area of air sampling include electric generation units (natural gas and landfill gas), waste water treatment facility, pharmaceutical and other types of small manufacturing and service-oriented businesses. There are a few active solid waste management facilities and operations for materials recycling, vehicle dismantling, construction and debris processing and composting yard and food waste. The town of Brookhaven operates the Brookhaven Landfill and Recycling Area, a large waste management facility along Horseblock Road. This facility is permitted for many activities including materials recycling, municipal solid waste transfer, construction and demolition debris processing and disposal. Household hazardous waste is collected on site but removed for appropriate disposal by a licensed contractor. The landfill portion of the permit allows the facility to accept the following wastes for onsite disposal: non-hazardous ash from waste-to-energy facilities, sludge ash,<sup>5</sup> untreatable residues from recycling, compost material,<sup>6</sup> bulk metal recycling and cleanfill.<sup>7</sup> The landfill accepts waste at a rate of 1 million tons per year<sup>8</sup> for which non-hazardous ash from waste-to-energy facilities accounts for about 30-40% and construction debris accounts for the balance, 60-70%. This facility is permitted to burn collected landfill gas and has the highest level of air permitting, a Title V permit.<sup>9</sup> In terms of air permitting, other facilities or operations in the area hold either a State Facility or Registration permit. Additionally, there are a number of inactive solid waste facilities which processed construction and demolition debris and waste oil, dismantled vehicles and recovered metals. Lastly, the area has a number of major highways and heavily traveled roads (such as State Highway 27,<sup>10</sup> Montauk Highway, Patchogue Yaphank and Horseblock Roads), from which mobile sources (such as cars, trucks and buses) would be contributors of toxic air pollutants evaluated in the CAS program.

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<sup>3</sup> In March 2011, DEC responded to community odor complaints from residents and the evacuation of Frank P. Long Intermediate School by removing the permit condition which allowed the landfill to accept non-hazardous sewage sludge. Solids from wastewater treatment plants had been a permitted condition for disposal since the 1980s.

<sup>4</sup> CDP is defined by the U.S. Census Bureau as a concentration of population for statistical purposes. CDPs are not incorporated and are counterparts to incorporated places such as cities, towns and villages.

<sup>5</sup> Sludge ash consists of residual waste after sewage sludge incineration.

<sup>6</sup> Some limited composting is conducted onsite and composted material is used as ground cover at the landfill. The bulk of the compostable material delivered to the landfill is transferred to the Long Island Compost and Great Gardens facility.

<sup>7</sup> By definition, cleanfill consists of material consisting of concrete, steel, wood, sand, dirt, soil, glass, construction and demolition debris, and other recognizable inert material.

<sup>8</sup> This figure represents the permitted limit and is roughly the amount disposed onsite for recent years.

<sup>9</sup> To learn more about the permitting of facilities by DEC, read *The Development of the State Program* in Appendix A.

<sup>10</sup> Also called Sunrise Highway.

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The population density for the area is 2,340 people per square mile.<sup>11</sup> For the purpose of comparison to other air monitoring locations in the State, the area will be characterized as suburban.<sup>12,13</sup> There is a potential environmental justice area following the DEC guidance for identification of these areas<sup>14</sup> between State Highway 27 and Montauk Highway. The samples near the State Highway 27 and at Brookhaven and Bellport Avenues were collected in the potential environmental justice area. Most people in the area are employed in the sectors of educational services, health care and social assistance (24.3%). Professional, scientific, management, and administrative and waste management services employs 11.2% and retail trade, the third largest sector employs 9.6%.<sup>15</sup>

### ***Site Selection***

Three air samples were collected on July 10 and 15, 2013. One sample was collected northeast of the Long Island Compost and Great Gardens facility on Yaphank Avenue. The second sample was collected within 150 feet of State Highway 27 (also called Sunrise Highway). The third sample was collected near Frank P. Long Intermediate School on Brookhaven and Bellport Avenues. In 2014, a fourth sampling canister was issued based on the location and results from the sample obtained adjacent to State Highway 27. A 1-hour sample was collected on April 4 in the residential neighborhood west of the Brookhaven Landfill. All air sample locations are shown in Figure 1.

### ***Sampling and Analysis***

Four air samples were collected and the applicants completed a field log<sup>16</sup> that documented a chain of custody for the sampling canister and recorded sampling location, pressure gauge readings, sampling start and end times and weather conditions. Information about potential non-target sources was assessed but not recorded on the field log, since no activities were observed during sampling.

Table 1 lists the meteorological conditions during the four sampling events collected in the summer 2013 and late winter 2014.

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<sup>11</sup> The CDP of North Bellport was used for this estimate because two of the samples were collected in this census designation. 2010 census data were used.

<sup>12</sup> Comparison to other locations in the State can be found in the *Results* section.

<sup>13</sup> The US Census has formal criteria for selecting urban and rural locations. In general, the Census classifies areas with more than 500 persons per square mile as an urban location. Federal Register, Vol. 76, No. 164, Department of Commerce, Urban Area Criteria for the 2010 Census. August 24, 2011

<sup>14</sup> DEC Environmental Justice Policy CP-29, March 19, 2003. The guidance can be found here: <http://www.dec.ny.gov/public/911.html>.

<sup>15</sup> U.S. Census Bureau – Selected Economic Characteristics, 2006 – 2010 American Community Survey 5-Year Estimates. Accessed online 10/1/2012 at : <http://factfinder2.census.gov/faces/nav/jsf/pages/searchresults.xhtml?refresh=t>

<sup>16</sup> A copy of the Field Log is available online at: [http://www.dec.ny.gov/docs/air\\_pdf/casfieldlog.pdf](http://www.dec.ny.gov/docs/air_pdf/casfieldlog.pdf)

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**Table 1 Meteorological Conditions during Sampling**

| Date      | Start Time | Temp. (°F) | Humidity (%) | Pressure (in) | Visibility (mi) | Wind Direction* | Wind Speed (mph) | Precip (in) | Conditions       |
|-----------|------------|------------|--------------|---------------|-----------------|-----------------|------------------|-------------|------------------|
| 7/10/2013 | 11:45 AM   | 80.6       | 74           | 29.95         | 9.0             | South-southwest | 11.5             | N/A         | Scattered Clouds |
| 7/15/2013 | 9:35 AM    | 87.1       | 61           | 30.21         | 10.0            | Northwest       | 5.8              | N/A         | Partly Cloudy    |
| 7/15/2013 | 11:20 AM   | 91.0       | 55           | 30.19         | 10.0            | North-northwest | 9.2              | N/A         | Clear            |
| 4/4/2014  | 11:35 AM   | 44.1       | 58           | 30.08         | 10.0            | East-southeast  | 8.1              | N/A         | Overcast         |

Source: Weather Underground<sup>17</sup>

Note: \*This is the direction the wind is blowing from.

Ambient air samples were collected over a 1-hour period using an evacuated 6-liter SUMMA canister with a calibrated orifice. At completion of sampling, the canisters were returned to DEC's Bureau of Air Quality Surveillance laboratory to be analyzed using gas chromatography/mass spectrometry (GC/MS).

The canisters were analyzed for 43 target compounds<sup>18</sup> consistent with DEC's Toxics Air Monitoring Network. The canisters were analyzed using U.S. Environmental Protection Agency's (EPA's) method TO-15. The analytical process is described as follows: a portion of the air sample is taken from the canister at a controlled flow and temperature by an Entech Model 7100A preconcentrator, a device designed to take a dilute trace of a sample and concentrate it. This trace sample is subsequently injected into a Varian Saturn GC/MS.

## Interpretation of Samples

The air sample results were compared to health-based concentration values derived by DEC. First, the measured air concentrations were compared to short-term health-based concentration values to assess whether the results were of immediate public health concerns. Second, the results were compared with long-term health-based concentrations values to evaluate the need for follow-up sampling, in concert with other factors. Both the short-term and long-term concentration values are further discussed below. Next, the CAS sample results were compared with ambient air monitoring concentrations from DEC's air toxics monitoring network, since many of the toxic air pollutants assessed in the CAS program are frequently detected at other locations in the State. This comparison evaluates whether the sampling results from the program are significantly different from air monitoring concentrations at other locations in the State. Finally, staff looked at both stationary sources (such as large industrial facilities and some specific small sources) and mobile sources (such as cars, trucks and buses) in the area to qualitatively assess source contributions to the sample results.

What follows are explanations of DEC's health-based concentration values and a description of DEC's air toxics monitoring network.

<sup>17</sup> Historical data from National Weather Service, available online at: <http://www.wunderground.com/>.

<sup>18</sup> Pollutants measured in the Community Air Screen program. <http://www.dec.ny.gov/public/81654.html>

### ***DEC's Health-based Concentration Values***

DEC derives both short-term and long-term air concentration values by adopting the most conservative health-based air concentration values developed by DEC, EPA, or the New York State Department of Health (DOH). DEC uses these values as part of its strategy to determine the degree of pollutant removal required for sources releasing air toxics. These air concentration values are being used in the CAS program.

First, the 1-hour CAS samples are compared with DEC's Short-term Guideline Concentrations (SGCs). SGCs are derived to protect the general public from adverse exposure to toxic air contaminants for short-term exposures of 1-hour. The general public includes infants and children, and other individuals who may be susceptible. Examples of health outcomes from short-term exposures may include headaches, nausea, allergic reactions, asthma exacerbation, and irritation to the eyes, nose and throat. CAS samples were compared to SGCs to determine whether the results represent an immediate public health concern.

Next, for this program, the CAS 1-hour samples were compared with long-term health-based air concentration values which are called Annual Guideline Concentrations (AGCs). Comparison of the CAS samples to long-term values is a conservative approach and was conducted to determine the need for follow-up sampling. AGCs are ambient (for outdoor air) annual-based concentrations that have been derived to protect the public's health from long-term (e.g., continuous lifetime) exposure to an air pollutant.

There are two health outcomes from long-term exposures, cancer and non-cancer endpoints such as reproductive, development, respiratory and cardiovascular effects. Greater detail about the derivation of AGCs from cancer and non-cancer endpoints can be found in Appendix A, *The Development of the State Program* for addressing toxic air pollutants from stationary sources. A brief discussion follows.

Both the non-cancer and cancer AGCs are derived from an air concentration that is not expected to cause serious health effects during a lifetime of continuous exposure. The AGC air concentration is often modified – to be very conservative - from the experimental value to account for uncertainties for both non-cancer and cancer health endpoints. Follow-up sampling will be considered for any CAS sample result above a non-cancer AGC or above 10 times a cancer AGC.<sup>19</sup>

These guideline values are not bright lines between air concentrations that cause health effects and those that do not. They are values that are used by DEC to assess the acceptability of proposed new air pollution sources during the permitting process, and are also used to evaluate the results of ambient air monitoring studies that measure the impacts of numerous sources of air pollution in an area. The purpose of the guideline is to help guide decisions about reducing community exposure to air pollution. More information about controlling air pollution sources can be found in Appendix A.

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<sup>19</sup> Readers are encouraged to read Appendix A for an explanation about the differences between non-cancer and cancer AGCs and the selection of AGC thresholds for considering follow-up sampling.

### ***DEC's Air Toxics Monitoring Network***

DEC has operated an air toxics monitoring network across the State since 1990. The purpose of the ambient air toxics monitoring network is to support DEC's efforts to reduce human exposure and health risks from air toxics. The network is intended to support four major objectives:

- Establish trends and evaluate the effectiveness of air toxics emissions reduction strategies.
- Characterize ambient concentrations (and deposition) in local areas. Air toxics often originate from local sources and can concentrate in relatively small geographical areas, producing the greatest risks to human health.
- Provide data to support, evaluate, and improve air quality models. Air quality models are used to develop emission control strategies, perform exposure assessments, and assess program effectiveness.
- Provide data to support scientific studies to better understand the relationship between ambient air toxics concentrations, human exposure, and health effects from these exposures.

DEC's air toxics monitoring network is designed to measure an average exposure over the course of a year. Samples are collected over a 24-hour period, on a one-in-six day schedule. In 2011, the network consisted of 10 monitors for toxic air pollutants located in urban, industrial, residential and rural areas of the State. Year 2011 air toxics monitoring data were compared to the CAS samples to provide a perspective on monitored concentrations obtained in these various locations in comparison to the 1-hour results obtained in the CAS program.

It is generally known that areas with higher population densities have more sources of air toxics such as cars, trucks, gas stations and dry cleaners. Therefore, the monitors have been grouped by land-use classification into urban, suburban and rural locations. Additionally, monitors sited to capture releases from specific sources have been grouped together.

## **Results**

Table 2 shows the results for the four samples. Of the 43 pollutants measured, 37 were reliably detected<sup>20</sup> at one or more sampling locations. Appendix B lists all toxic air pollutants measured in this program with information on uses and possible industries or other sources releasing these air pollutants.

The results in Table 2 are compared with DEC's short-term health-based air concentration values. As shown, the results for the four samples collected are well below the short-term air concentration values. The measured results for the air toxics from this short-term assessment would not be considered a potential health threat or an immediate public health concern.

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<sup>20</sup> Accurately detecting ambient levels of air toxics is dependent on the lowest reliable measured level (called the method detection limit) which varies by pollutant and by monitoring method. Although there is less reliability in those measurements reported below the lowest reliable measured level, USEPA's Science Advisory Board (Pilot City Air Toxics Measurements Summary, Office of Air Quality Planning and Standards, EPA454/R-01-003, February 2001) has stated that these values may be recognized as measurable results. For the Community Air Screen Program, results below the lowest reliable measured level will be noted but not used to determine follow-up activities.

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Table 2 also shows that many of results in these samples are below the long-term health-based air concentration values. The long-term concentration values for carcinogens are set at a 1-in-a-million cancer risk. The results from the community sampling for 1,2-dichloroethane, 1,3-butadiene, 1,4-dichlorobenzene, carbon tetrachloride, and chloroform are in the range of 1-in-a-million to 10-in-a-million cancer risk. As illustrated by the graphs in Appendix C, the concentrations of these five air toxics are similar to the monitoring concentrations found at other suburban locations in DEC's toxics network. The land-use classification for all samples most closely represents a suburban area.

The result for benzene at the State Highway 27 location is below the short-term health-based air concentration value and therefore does not represent a short-term health concern. The comparison to the long-term health-based air concentration is estimated to be 25-in-a-million cancer risk, assuming the short-term sample results is representative of longer-term concentrations.

1,2-Dibromoethane was detected at a concentration higher than concentrations found at other locations in the State. No short-term guideline concentration has been developed for 1,2-dibromoethane because exposures to concentrations associated with short-term health effects are not expected to occur due to current use restrictions. The comparison to the long-term health-based air concentration value is estimated to be 13-in-a-million cancer risk, assuming the short-term sample result is representative of longer-term concentrations.

Five air toxics (e.g., carbon tetrachloride, chloromethane, dichlorodifluoromethane, trichlorofluoromethane, trichlorotrifluoroethane) commonly used as refrigerants were found in similar concentration range as detected in the State network. Since many of these are ozone-depleting chemicals with a long atmospheric half-life, their use is highly regulated.

**Table 2 Air Toxic Pollutant Concentrations from Air Sampling in the Brookhaven Community**

| Chemical                       | Yaphank Avenue<br>7/10/2013<br>11:45 AM<br>(ppb) | State Highway<br>27 (Sunrise Highway,<br>South Service Rd)<br>7/15/2013<br>9:35 AM<br>(ppb) | Brookhaven and<br>Bellport Avenues<br>7/15/2013<br>11:20 AM<br>(ppb) | Sundial Lane<br>4/4/2014<br>11:35 AM<br>(ppb) | Short-Term<br>(1-hour)<br>Health-Based<br>Concentration<br>Values (ppb) | Long-Term<br>Health-Based<br>Concentration<br>Values (ppb) ** | Carcinogen |
|--------------------------------|--|---|--|---|---|---|------------|
| 1,1,1-Trichloroethane          | 0.0080   | 0.013   | 0.0080   | 0.015   | 1600  | 900   |            |
| 1,1,2,2-Tetrachloroethane      | nd   | nd  | nd   | 0.010   | --  | 2   |            |
| 1,1-Dichloroethane             | 0.0030   | 0.0050  | 0.0030   | 0.011   | --  | 0.16  | yes        |
| 1,1-Dichloroethylene           | nd   | nd  | nd   | 0.0090  | --  | 18  |            |
| 1,2,4-Trimethylbenzene         | 0.023  | 0.99  | 0.12   | 0.010   | --  | 1.2   |            |
| 1,2-Dibromoethane              | 0.0020   | 0.0030  | 0.0020   | 0.0090  | --  | 0.0007  | yes        |
| 1,2-Dichlorobenzene            | 0.0030   | 0.0040  | 0.0030   | 0.0060  | 5000  | 33  |            |
| 1,2-Dichloroethane             | 0.015  | nd  | nd   | 0.026   | --  | 0.01  | yes        |
| 1,2-Dichloropropane            | 0.0030   | 0.0040  | 0.0030   | 0.013   | --  | 0.87  |            |
| 1,3,5-Trimethylbenzene         | 0.0060   | 0.21  | 0.026  | 0.0060  | --  | 59  |            |
| 1,3-Butadiene                  | 0.0090   | 0.019   | 0.010  | 0.011   | --  | 0.015   | yes        |
| 1,4-Dichlorobenzene            | 0.0060   | 0.064   | 0.053  | 0.0050  | --  | 0.015   | yes        |
| <i>o</i> -Chlorotoluene        | nd   | nd  | nd   | 0.0050  | 46  | 0.004   | yes        |
| Benzene                        | 0.060  | 1.0   | 0.23   | 0.21  | 400   | 0.04  | yes        |
| Bromodichloromethane           | 0.0030   | nd  | 0.011  | 0.010   | --  | 10  |            |
| Bromomethane                   | 0.012  | 0.011   | 0.010  | 0.018   | 1000  | 1.3   |            |
| Carbon disulfide               | 0.011  | 0.0070  | nd   | 0.014   | 2000  | 220   |            |
| Carbon tetrachloride           | 0.086  | 0.094   | 0.081  | 0.086   | 300   | 0.027   | yes        |
| Chlorobenzene                  | 0.0020   | 0.0040  | 0.0030   | 0.0080  | --  | 24  |            |
| Chloroform                     | 0.021  | 0.041   | 0.025  | 0.029   | 31  | 0.009   | yes        |
| Chloromethane                  | 0.73   | 0.59  | 0.64   | 0.52  | 11000   | 44  |            |
| Dichlorodifluoromethane        | 0.62   | 0.64  | 0.59   | 0.54  | --  | 2400  |            |
| Dichloromethane                | 0.052  | 0.086   | 0.064  | 0.075   | 4000  | 0.60  | yes        |
| Dichlorotetrafluoroethane      | 0.018  | 0.018   | 0.017  | 0.036   | --  | 2400  |            |
| Ethylbenzene                   | 0.013  | 1.0   | 0.13   | 0.028   | 12000   | 230   |            |
| <i>m,p</i> -Xylene             | 0.043  | 4.3   | 0.54   | 0.080   | 990   | 23  |            |
| Methyl <i>tert</i> butyl ether | 0.0020   | 0.0060  | nd   | 0.0070  | --  | 830   |            |
| <i>o</i> -Xylene               | 0.020  | 1.6   | 0.19   | 0.025   | 990   | 23  |            |
| Styrene                        | 0.030  | 0.012   | 0.0060   | 0.0060  | 4000  | 230   |            |

| Chemical                            | Yaphank Avenue<br>7/10/2013<br>11:45 AM<br>(ppb) | State Highway<br>27 (Sunrise Highway,<br>South Service Rd)<br>7/15/2013<br>9:35 AM<br>(ppb) | Brookhaven and<br>Bellport Avenues<br>7/15/2013<br>11:20 AM<br>(ppb) | Sundial Lane<br>4/4/2014<br>11:35 AM<br>(ppb) | Short-Term<br>(1-hour)<br>Health-Based<br>Concentration<br>Values (ppb) | Long-Term<br>Health-Based<br>Concentration<br>Values (ppb) ** | Carcinogen |
|-------------------------------------|--|---|--|---|---|---|------------|
| Tetrachloroethylene                 | 0.013  | 0.027   | 0.023  | 0.013   | 150   | 0.15  | yes        |
| Toluene                             | 0.092  | 5.1   | 0.97   | 0.39  | 9800  | 1300  |            |
| <i>trans</i> -1,2-Dichloroethylene  | nd   | nd  | nd   | 0.0090  | --  | 16  |            |
| <i>trans</i> -1,3-Dichloropropylene | 0.0020   | 0.0020  | 0.0020   | 0.0070  | --  | 0.055   | yes        |
| Trichloroethylene                   | 0.0030   | 0.025   | 0.0090   | 0.011   | 2600  | 0.093   | yes        |
| Trichlorofluoromethane              | 0.22   | 0.33  | 0.21   | 0.23  | 1600  | 900   |            |
| Trichlorotrifluoroethane            | 0.072  | 0.077   | 0.070  | 0.070   | 130000  | 23000   |            |
| Vinyl chloride                      | 0.011  | 0.017   | 0.011  | 0.012   | 71000   | 0.043   | yes        |

Note: "--" indicates no Short-term Guideline Concentration value has been developed for this chemical

"nd" indicates results below analytical method detection limit

"\*\*" The long-term values, in combination with other factors are used to assess whether additional sampling and evaluation is warranted on a case-by-case basis.



**Figure 1. Location for the Four Ambient Air Samples Collected**

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### **Discussion**

Four air samples were collected in the Brookhaven community for 1-hour with a 6-liter sampling canister and analyzed using a laboratory method which evaluates the presence of 43 toxic air pollutants. The predominant wind direction during the sample collected on July 10, 2013 was from the south-southwest direction. The predominant wind direction during the samples collected in the morning and afternoon on July 15, 2013 were from the northwest and north-northwest directions, respectively. During sampling on April 4, 2014, the predominant wind direction was from the east-southeast direction.

All results are below the short-term health-based air concentration values. With the exception of 1,2-dibromoethane and benzene, the results are below or within an order of magnitude of the long-term health-based air concentration values or similar to concentrations found in DEC's ambient air monitoring network.

One of the halogenated alkanes detected with highest estimated risk was 1,2-dibromoethane. This air toxic is difficult to measure reliably and the reported result is very close to the method detection limit. A review of DEC's air toxic monitoring network shows that this air toxic is rarely detected and this is supported by the few data points apparent in the graph for 1,2-dibromoethane in Appendix C. It is unlikely that the short-term sample result reflects longer-term conditions given the sporadic detection of this air toxic. More discussion about possible sources to the atmosphere can be found in the section below on *1,2-Dibromoethane Sources*.

The results for a number of pollutants related to vehicular emissions for the sample at the State Highway 27 (also called Sunrise Highway) location were higher than the results at the other two locations for sampling in July. The sample was collected approximately 100 feet from State Highway 27.<sup>21</sup> All results from the sample at this location are below the short-term health-based air concentration values and therefore do not represent a short-term health concern. The result for benzene at this location did prompt further review since it was over a 10-in-a-million cancer risk. The comparison of the benzene result to the long-term air concentration value is estimated to be 25-in-a-million cancer risk, assuming the short-term sample result is representative of continuous exposure and long-term concentrations. It is unlikely that the measured concentration from this short-term sampling event reflects long-term exposure conditions since the amount of traffic on State Highway 27 during a week day would be considerably different than the amount of traffic on other days or at night. Additionally, the result is only slightly higher than what is found in urban locations in the State and therefore would not be considered unusual. These results and the fact that the sample was not obtained in an optimal location for the applicant's source of concern – Brookhaven Landfill - prompted the issuance of an additional sampling canister in April 2014.

The sample obtained in April 2014 (Sundial Lane) was collected east of the Brookhaven Landfill during a period of time when the winds were blowing across the landfill toward the air sample collection site. A number of air toxics measured in the sample have been reported by the

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<sup>21</sup> This segment of the highway is fairly heavily traveled with an annual average daily traffic count of approximately 64,000 vehicles per day. New York State Department of Transportation 2012 Traffic Volume Report.

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Brookhaven Landfill in their 2012 emissions inventory to DEC, such as benzene, chlorobenzene, 1,4-dichlorobenzene, ethylbenzene, tetrachloroethylene, toluene, trichloroethylene, m,p-xylene, o-xylene and vinyl chloride. Given the close proximity of this sample location to the landfill, we would expect the concentrations to be higher than the other sample locations. However, the emissions rates of these air toxics from the landfill are very low and the measurements do not appear to be very different than other locations within the State, as shown in Appendix C. Conversely, some of air toxics detected at the Sundial Lane location were noticeably different than the other three sample locations (1,1,2,2-tetrachloroethane, 1,1-dichloroethane, 1,1-dichloroethylene, 1,2-dibromoethane, 1,2-dichloropropane, chlorobenzene, dichlorotetrafluoroethane, trans 1,2-dichloroethylene and trans 1,3-dichloropropylene). However, the measured concentrations of these air toxics were not noticeably higher than found in other locations in the State. The landfill could be a potential source of these air toxics since a number of these compounds have been measured in landfill gas.<sup>22</sup>

A clear indicator of a source profile is seen in the results for the sample collected at State Highway 27. The results for six air toxics commonly associated with vehicular emissions (1,2,4-trimethylbenzene, 1,3,5-trimethylbenzene, ethylbenzene, m,p-xylene, o-xylene and toluene) were noticeably different at this location when compared to the other three sample locations and other locations in the State. It's important to note that the results for these six air toxics are all below both short-term and long-term health-based air concentration values. More information about historical assessments of air quality in the community can be found in the sections below entitled, *Brookhaven Landfill* and *Long Island Compost – Great Gardens Facility*

In conclusion, this limited short-term screening assessment did not identify concentrations of toxic air pollutants that would be considered a public health concern. Although one of the one hour benzene readings was higher than the other results, it was consistent with monitored concentrations across the State and not unexpected given close proximity to a heavily-traveled road.<sup>23</sup> Additionally, the screening did not yield results that were clear indicators of emissions from the source of concern – the Brookhaven Landfill.

DEC's Division of Air Resources works to minimize the amount of toxic air pollution that is released to the atmosphere. Across the State, thousands of tons of toxic air pollutants are released from manmade sources such as cars, trucks, power plants, manufacturing factories and smaller sources such as drycleaners and gasoline stations.<sup>24</sup> In and near this community, the sources of toxic air pollutants include emissions from cars, trucks, commuter trains, residential space heating, electric generation units, waste water treatment, manufacturing, solid waste management, recycling operations, dry cleaners, gasoline stations, auto repair and auto refinishing shops.

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<sup>22</sup> US Environmental Protection Agency 2008. AP 42, Compilation of Air Pollutant Emission Factors. Volume 1, Fifth Edition. Available On-line at: <http://www.epa.gov/ttn/chief/ap42/ch02/index.html>

<sup>23</sup> Benzene releases in New York are primarily from mobile sources (both transportation such as cars, trucks and buses and non-road vehicles and engines). DEC has adopted many regulations and programs to control emissions from mobile sources. To learn more, see Appendix A *Addressing Mobile Source Pollution*.

<sup>24</sup> To learn more about sources of toxic pollutants in your community and health concerns visit the National Library of Medicine's interactive web site, *Tox Town*. <http://toxtown.nlm.nih.gov/flash/town/flash.php>

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### ***1,2-Dibromoethane Sources***

1,2-dibromoethane is the third most common groundwater contaminant due to leaking of underground storage tanks.<sup>25</sup> 1,2-dibromoethane appears to be formed naturally by algae growth<sup>26,27</sup> and has been detected in ocean waters and air.<sup>28</sup> 1,2-dibromoethane was used as a fumigant to protect against insects, pests, and nematodes in citrus, vegetable, and grain crops, and as a fumigant for turf, particularly on golf courses. In 1984, EPA banned its use as a soil and grain fumigant. Currently, there are no registered allowable pesticide or fumigant uses for 1,2-dibromoethane in New York.<sup>29</sup> Trace quantities of 1,2-dibromoethane emissions have been measured from natural gas-fired reciprocating engines used at pipeline compressor and storage stations.<sup>30</sup> It is still used in some engine lubricants and greases.<sup>31</sup>

1,2-dibromoethane and 1,2-dichloroethane are used in leaded aviation fuel (known as avgas)<sup>32</sup> because they act as a lead scavengers.<sup>33</sup> When aircraft power down such as during descent or when an aircraft is idling or taxiing on the ground, incomplete combustion occurs because the engine is not running as efficiently as it does under full power. The hotter the temperature inside the combustion chamber of the engine, the more efficiently the fuel is burned.<sup>34</sup> Incomplete combustion results in the release of carbon monoxide and unburned fuel.<sup>35</sup> EPA proposed changes to aviation fuel primarily to address lead emissions but also to address the inclusion of 1,2-dibromoethane in fuel. EPA concluded that aircraft using leaded fuel are currently an ambient source of 1,2-dibromoethane.<sup>36</sup> Aircraft operating on avgas have spark-ignited internal-combustion engines which are propeller airplanes. A large percentage of the aircraft in use at the

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<sup>25</sup> Ron Falta. *EDB and DCA from Leaded Gasoline*. Clemson University Symposium presentation. 2005 Available online at: [http://www.clemson.edu/ces/hydro/symposium/2005\\_present/Falta\\_EDB.pdf](http://www.clemson.edu/ces/hydro/symposium/2005_present/Falta_EDB.pdf)

<sup>26</sup> Laternus, F., et.al., *Finding the scattered pieces of the mechanisms behind the formation of volatile halogen-containing C<sub>1</sub>- and C<sub>2</sub>-compounds by polar and cold-temperate macroalgae*. Reports on Polar and Marine Research. 271(2008).

<sup>27</sup> Laternus, Frank. *Release of Volatile Halogenated Organic Compounds by Unialgal Cultures of Polar Macroalgae*. Chemosphere 31(6). 1995.

<sup>28</sup> T.H. Class, K. Ballschmiter. *Chemistry of Organic Traces in Air, VIII: Sources and Distribution of Bromo- and Bromochloromethanes in Marine Air and Surfacewater of the Atlantic Ocean*. Journal of Atmospheric Chemistry 6 (1988) 35-46.

<sup>29</sup> Personal communication on 2/27/2014 with Jeanine Broughel, Chief, Product Registration and Pest Management Alternatives Section, Bureau of Pest Management for DEC.

<sup>30</sup> US Environmental Protection Agency 2000. AP 42, Compilation of Air Pollutant Emission Factors. Volume 1, Fifth Edition. Available On-line at: <http://www.epa.gov/ttn/chief/ap42/ch03/index.html>

<sup>31</sup> US Environmental Protection Agency 2009. Hazard Characterization Document. Screening –Level Hazard Characterization 1,2-Dibromoethane (CASRN 106-93-4).

<sup>32</sup> Seyferth, D., "The Rise and Fall of Tetraethyllead. 2", *Organometallics*, 2003, volume 22, pages 5154-5178.

<sup>33</sup> US Environmental Protection Agency. 2006 Historical Uses (1,2-dibromoethane and 1,2-dichloroethane). *Cleaning Up Underground Storage Tank Releases*. 1,2-dibromoethane is added to tetraethyl lead blend with a composition by weight of approximately 18% of the blend. 1,2-dichloroethane is also added at 19% by weight of the blend.

<sup>34</sup> John P. Hinz, Lt Col David M. Sonntag, Capt. Brian M. Clarke. *Interim Base-Level Guide for Exposure to Jet Fuel and Additives* December 2011.

<sup>35</sup> Glenn Research Center – Safeguarding Our Atmosphere. Available online at: <http://www.nasa.gov/centers/glenn/about/fs10grc.html>

<sup>36</sup> U.S. Environmental Protection Agency. *Advanced Notice of Proposed Rulemaking on Lead Emissions from Piston-Engine Aircraft Using Leaded Aviation Gasoline: Proposed Rule*. Federal Register, Vol 75, No 81. 4/28/2010. Available online at: <http://www.gpo.gov/fdsys/pkg/FR-2010-04-28/html/2010-9603.htm>

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nearby Brookhaven Airport are currently using avgas.<sup>37</sup> Since 1988 the amount of aviation gasoline supplied in the U.S. has steadily decreased with a 50% reduction between 1988 and 2012.<sup>38</sup>

### ***Brookhaven Landfill***

Two different historical assessments of air quality were conducted around the Brookhaven Landfill. The results were summarized and presented in the Health Consultation for Brookhaven Landfill.<sup>39</sup> The purpose of the Health Consultation was to use existing air and groundwater data to evaluate the potential for humans to be exposed to contaminants surrounding the Brookhaven Landfill. In the 1993 assessment, the air toxics detected around the landfill were either below or within typical outdoor background ranges and below health-based comparison values. For the assessment conducted 1997-1999, those air toxics not detected, half the detection limit was used. Under this conservative assumption the results detected and not detected were either below health-based comparison values or below background values when available.

It is difficult to compare the two assessments with the current CAS samples. The samples collected in 1993 and 1997-1999 were done using collection methods which differ from the approach in the CAS program. The detection limits were much higher than the detection limits used in the CAS program. Additionally, the landfill operations have changed significantly over the past 20 years. One area of overlap between the 1993 sampling and the CAS program samples is the identification of air toxics commonly associated with mobile sources. Given this overlap, it's very difficult to say with certainty the contribution from the landfill on the results for the sample collected near Sunrise Highway.

### ***Long Island Compost – Great Gardens Facility***

At the direction of the Suffolk County Legislature, the Suffolk County Department of Health Services (SCDHS) collected air quality data near yard waste operations in five areas of central Suffolk County.<sup>40</sup> Data were collected for screening purposes, to evaluate possible effects of the facilities on local air quality. One of the yard waste operators was the Long Island Compost/Great Gardens in Yaphank. Between 2007 and 2009, air samples were collected at off site locations near the Great Gardens facility. The report concluded that there were no detections of air toxics which pose a significant concern and that the majority of the air toxics measured were below the level of detection. For those air toxics detected, they were also found at a nearby background site and at the upwind sampling location. The report concluded that the source for detected air toxics may not be associated with the facility operations. The sampling and analysis methods used for this assessment differed from the one used in the CAS program.

During the period of sampling in July 2013, DEC, DOH and the SCDHS released a report presenting the findings of an investigation of potential source(s) of groundwater contamination in

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<sup>37</sup> AirNav.com (2014). Available online at <http://www.airnav.com/airport/KHWV>

<sup>38</sup> U.S. Energy Information Administration. Petroleum & Other Liquids. U.S. Product Supplied of Aviation Gasoline. Available online at: <http://www.eia.gov/dnav/pet/hist/LeafHandler.ashx?n=PET&s=MGAUPUS1&f=A>

<sup>39</sup> Prepared by the New York State Department of Health under a cooperative agreement with the Agency for Toxic Substances and Disease Registry. November 29, 2005. Accessed online: <http://www.atsdr.cdc.gov/hac/pha/HCPHA.asp?State=NY>

<sup>40</sup> Suffolk County Department of Health Services. October 15, 2010. *Air Monitoring Evaluation of Selected Yard Waste Management Facilities in Suffolk County*.

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the vicinity of Horseblock Road and Yaphank Avenue. The investigation was prompted by analyses of samples from a residential drinking water well that indicated contaminants at levels exceeding drinking water standards. This well is located adjacent to the Long Island Compost/Great Gardens facility which is a large-scale vegetative organic waste management facility. The water quality in the well began declining a few years after the facility began operation. This residence and other nearby residents were connected to a public water supply in 2011.

The investigation found some samples closest to the Long Island Compost facility had contaminants of manganese, radionuclide (gross alpha), ammonia and thallium above the drinking water standard. None of these contaminants are part of the suite of air toxics evaluated in the CAS program. Results of the investigation suggest that operations at the compost facility had impacted the groundwater quality in the vicinity of the facility.

Prior to release of the investigation results, DEC and the facility reached an agreement in June 2013 for major changes in operating procedures at the Long Island Compost facility. Under the agreement, the facility will refocus its operation to include the first use of an anaerobic digester for recycling of organic materials on Long Island. Anaerobic digestion is an enclosed biological process that converts organic matter into biogas, a renewable energy source and compost. The agreement also requires the facility to install state-of-the-art odor control technology and reduce the amounts of wood mulch and land-clearing debris stored on site. Other modifications include reducing onsite dust and emission from operating equipment. As part of the agreement, monitoring of the groundwater quality will continue to ensure compliance with the agreement stipulations and State regulations.

### ***Limitations/Uncertainties***

The assessment is limited to contaminants evaluated by EPA's TO-15 method. Some of the facilities in the area release pollutants not captured by the sampling and analysis methods such as particulate matter, oxides of nitrogen, sulfur dioxide and ammonia but these pollutants are regulated as part of the Clean Air Act and must meet specific limitations to minimize their release.

The results from this air screen program cannot be compared with confidence to long-term health risks from exposure because of the different averaging period. The 1-hour sample represents a snap-shot of information and cannot be definitely representative of the entire year. The sampling method is a short-term monitoring assessment and many factors affect concentrations of pollutants in a neighborhood. Factors include, but are not limited to time of day, wind, and activities going on in the area. For example, facility releases may be cyclical depending on production schedules. Meteorological conditions also greatly influence local pollutant concentration. Because of the limits of a 1-hour sampling, a 1-hour sample at another time could be lower or higher in comparison to the results from this screening assessment. Participants in the CAS program have been asked to obtain the 1-hour samples during periods of concern (such as during times when odors or visible emissions are present) which suggests that the results evaluated in this program reflect single periods of potentially higher concentrations.

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Finally, it should not be assumed that the results from the CAS sampling represent an individual's exposure. Monitoring results from any single location, whether short-term or long-term sampling, do not account for the fact that people spend time in many locations during the day as well as spend time indoors and outdoors. Other factors (such as smoking, pumping gasoline, hobbies and occupations using solvents) can lead to increases in toxic air pollutant exposures and contribute to the overall uncertainty in characterizing risk from the short-term sampling obtained in this program.

## **Appendix A**

### **Controlling Sources of Toxic Air Pollutants**

This appendix provides a summary of Federal and State programs to limit releases of pollutants from stationary sources (large industrial facilities and some specific small sources) and from mobile sources (such as cars, trucks, airplanes and locomotives and lawn, farming and construction equipment). The summary focuses on strategies addressing the releases of toxic air pollutants since these pollutants are the focus of the Community Air Screen Program.

The summary is intended to provide the reader with a general understanding of the history and types of programs implemented to control these pollutants. This overview is not comprehensive. Readers are encouraged to review “Taking Toxics Out of the Air” at EPA’s web page

<http://www.epa.gov/airquality/takingtoxics/>.

In 1957, the New York State Legislature enacted one of the nation's first comprehensive air pollution control laws by passing the Air Pollution Control Act, Article 12-A of the Public Health Law. The Law recognized the need “to safeguard the air resources of the state from pollution” by controlling or abating air pollutant releases from existing sources and preventing new source releases for the public good. The State’s policy was then and remains: “to maintain a reasonable degree of purity of the air resources of the state, which shall be consistent with public health and welfare and the public enjoyment thereof, the industrial development of the state...”

By 1962 this policy provided the foundation for an air pollution control program to control emissions from industrial processes and the combustion of fuels in NYS.

The state and federal programs to protect the public from adverse effects of air contamination are presented in the next sections.

### **Addressing Stationary Source Pollution**

#### ***The Development of the State Program***

In 1968, New York enacted regulations (Part 212, General Process Emission Sources) to address the control of toxic air pollutant emissions from industrial processes<sup>1</sup> and burning of waste fuels. A handbook was developed (Process Source Handbook) to assist DEC staff in determining the degree of air pollution control that would be required to reduce emissions for each process source.<sup>2</sup> Additionally, in the early 1970s, the State enacted a regulation setting air quality standards (Part 257) for nine toxic air pollutants.

The state program evolved over the decades as our knowledge about the adverse public health and environmental impacts of air pollution grew, coupled with advances to assess the ambient air concentrations of air pollution (through dispersion modeling) and technological advances in air pollution

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<sup>1</sup> A process is any activity at a stationary source that results in an emission of a regulated air pollutant. Many large stationary sources (e.g., industrial facilities) have multiple processes.

<sup>2</sup> A process source is a term used to separate out the different areas at a stationary source that could lead to releases of air pollutants. For example, a facility which paints metal parts could have two process sources: (1) metal cleaning area with a degreasing process could release pollutants and (2) an area where the metal parts are painted would be considered a second process emission source.

control.<sup>3,4</sup> These advances have resulted in the implementation of stronger air pollution abatement strategies over the years to improve air quality and better ensure the protection of public health and the environment.

The current State air toxics program<sup>5</sup> applies to numerous stationary sources and requires these sources to undergo a screening risk assessment to determine the public health impacts from inhalation exposures. For the initial review of each source, DEC requires the use of a specific air dispersion model to estimate the maximum short-term (1-hour) and annual ambient air concentrations for each toxic air pollutant released. These modeled concentrations are compared to Short-term (SGC) and Annual Guideline Concentrations (AGC) developed by DEC. These guideline concentrations for toxic air pollutants, along with other factors, are used to determine the degree of air pollution control. The guideline concentrations are updated every three years.<sup>6</sup>

SGCs are derived to protect the general public from adverse exposure to toxic air contaminants for short-term exposures of 1-hour. Examples of health outcomes from short-term exposures may include headaches, nausea, allergic reactions, asthma exacerbation, and irritation to the eyes, nose and throat. SGCs are compared with samples obtained for short periods of time (1-hour) or dispersion modeling estimates for 1-hour impacts.

There are two health outcomes from long-term exposures, cancer and non-cancer endpoints such as reproductive, development, respiratory and cardiovascular effects. AGCs are developed for both types of health outcomes. AGCs are compared with samples obtained from a full year of monitoring or dispersion modeling estimates for annual averages.

The non-cancer AGC is derived from an air concentration that is not expected to cause serious health effects during a lifetime of continuous exposure. The AGC air concentration is often modified – to be very conservative - from the experimental value to account for uncertainties such as whether the effects in animals can be used to estimate the likelihood of effects in humans and whether the effects of high exposure concentrations in humans or animals can be used to estimate the effects of low exposure levels. The non-cancer health endpoints generally require higher exposures to elicit a response when compared to cancer health endpoints. Therefore, for the CAS program sample results above the non-cancer AGC will be considered for follow-up sampling.

The other health outcome possible from long-term exposure is cancer. Similar to the derivation for non-cancer AGCs, there is a lot of uncertainty in deriving AGCs based on cancer health outcomes. Cancer AGCs are defined as chemical concentrations in air that are associated with an estimated excess lifetime human cancer risk of 1-in-a-million ( $1 \times 10^{-6}$ ). Under the 1990 Clean Air Act, the acceptable cancer risk used by the EPA to make regulatory decisions regarding the need for further air pollution reductions from sources or to identify significant concerns from ambient monitoring data is 100-in-a-million ( $1 \times 10^{-4}$ ). The acceptable cancer risk used by the DEC's Division of Air Resources to make regulatory permitting decisions about the need to consider further air pollution controls for sources ranges from 1-in-a-million to 10-in-a-million ( $1 \times 10^{-5}$ ). This is more conservative than EPA's acceptable level of concern. The

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<sup>3</sup> New York State Department of Environmental Conservation (NYSDEC) 1981. Air Guide-1: Application of 6NYCRR Part 212 – Toxic Air Contaminants.

<sup>4</sup> Cashman, T.J. 1982. Establishment of DEC's Toxic Air Contaminant Guideline Air Guide-1. New York State Department of Environmental Conservation. Division of Air Resources. New York State Public Health Association Annual Conference, Rochester NY. June 7, 1982.

<sup>5</sup> New York State Department of Environmental Conservation (NYSDEC) 1997. Guidelines for The Control of Toxic Ambient Air Contaminants. Division of Air Resources. Albany, NY. November 12, 1997.

<sup>6</sup> The most recent values developed in 2010 are available online at: [http://www.dec.ny.gov/docs/air\\_pdf/agcsgc10.pdf](http://www.dec.ny.gov/docs/air_pdf/agcsgc10.pdf)

selection of an acceptable level of concern is a risk management decision. For the CAS program sample results above the 10-in-a-million risk level (which is 10 times the cancer AGC) will be considered for follow-up sampling.

Specific stationary sources are required to use a dispersion model to predict short-term (1-hour) and long-term (annual average) concentrations from facility emissions. These modeled short-term and annual maximum ambient concentrations are compared to DEC's SGCs and AGCs to evaluate whether the facility's emissions and associated air pollution control measures are acceptable. If the guideline concentrations are not met, a refined, site-specific analysis, using EPA recommended air dispersion models, is required. The New York air toxics program is referred to as a risk-based program. This means that the risks to public health and environmental are evaluated in order to determine the degree of air pollution control necessary for each toxic air pollutant from each process source at a stationary source.

The degree of air pollution control is documented through the permitting process. DEC has three distinct levels of permits for stationary sources based on the potential level of emissions that could be released by the facility. The first permit type is the Title V<sup>7</sup> facility permit which is required at "major" facilities that have the potential to release pollutants above specific thresholds for criteria pollutants or hazardous air pollutants (HAPs). All requirements for controlling toxic air pollutants are written into the Title V permit including emission limitations, monitoring requirements, recordkeeping and reporting requirements and requirements to periodically (at least semi-annually and annually) certify that the facility complies with all requirements. DEC is required by EPA to conduct evaluations of Title V facilities at least every two years, but the majority of these facilities in the State are evaluated every year. DEC receives an annual emission statement from all facilities with Title V permits. These statements list all criteria pollutants and HAPs and the annual amount released for each.

The second level of air permits are State Facility Permits.<sup>8</sup> Facilities that have emission releases below the specific threshold for criteria pollutants or HAPs are given this permit. This permit would include requirements such as emissions limits, recordkeeping and reporting requirements, and emissions monitoring and testing requirements. Sources with permit conditions that require emissions be kept below Title V thresholds are required to have an evaluation every five years to ensure compliance with the permit conditions.

The third level of air permits is called a minor facility registration and, generally, applies to smaller facilities such as dry cleaners or gas stations. The registrations for these facilities include a list of HAPs for which releases may be of concern. Facilities with registrations are still required to comply with all applicable state and federal requirements, including emissions limitations or enforceable operational conditions, but these requirements are not included in the registration itself. Lastly, some facilities are exempt from the permitting process because they are engaged in activities associated with very small releases of air pollutants. These facilities do not need to obtain a permit or registration, but are required to comply with all applicable state and federal requirements, including emissions limitations or enforceable operational conditions.

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<sup>7</sup> Title V is a national air permitting program.

<sup>8</sup> Some facilities are considered small emission sources and are specifically exempt from a State Facility Permit as detailed in State regulation.

## ***The Development of the Federal Programs***

In 1970, the Clean Air Act (CAA) distinguished between two categories of pollutants: criteria pollutants<sup>9</sup> and hazardous air pollutants (HAPs).<sup>10</sup> This early version of the Act listed only eight HAPs<sup>11</sup> and regulated only seven.

Major amendments to the CAA in 1990 (CAAA) established a number of milestones or regulatory deadlines to improve air quality. One was that the HAPs list was expanded to 187 with a greater effort to control HAP releases from mobile sources.

For large stationary sources the CAAA authorized the federal government to develop National Emission Standards for Hazardous Air Pollutants (NESHAPs) for 174 source categories which emitted HAPs and established a national air permitting program called Title V. The purpose was to ensure that the requirements to reduce HAPs were national, ensuring no Title V facility had a competitive edge by having to meet less stringent pollution control requirements.

The goal of the NESHAP program was to reduce toxic air pollutant emissions by over 75% from large stationary sources (i.e., industrial facilities) within 10 years by enacting a two-stage regulatory process. First, technology-based standards (NESHAPS) would be developed and implemented for 174 categories of large stationary sources. Second, risk to public health and the environment would be assessed within eight years after promulgation of the stationary source-specific NESHAP. This program is referred to as the Risk and Technology program and is currently being implemented.

Other goals established by EPA to measure progress in the reduction of air pollution under the CAAA are briefly discussed below.

## **Addressing Mobile Source Pollution**

The control of air pollution from motor vehicles is extremely important in order to improve air quality and protect public health. Unlike stationary sources, regulation of mobile sources has been primarily dominated by two programs: EPA's national program and California's state program. The 1970 Clean Air Act divides mobile sources into three categories: on-road motor vehicles, like cars, trucks, and buses; airplanes; and nonroad vehicles and engines (which includes the following: construction equipment, lawn and farm equipment, ships, locomotives, motorboats, tractors, mining trucks). The authority to set federal standards began with the 1965 Motor Vehicle Air Pollution Control Act and the first emission standards were promulgated in 1966. The 1965 Act also prohibited the sale of nonconforming vehicles and the rendering inoperable any pollution control devices. The 1970 CAA required further reductions and established a framework for motor vehicle emissions regulations that has been preserved in later amendments. These earlier emission reductions primarily focused on criteria pollutants (carbon monoxide and nitrogen oxides) and hydrocarbons.<sup>12,13</sup>

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<sup>9</sup> Criteria pollutants are: carbon monoxide, sulfur oxides, nitrogen oxides, ozone, lead and particulate matter.

<sup>10</sup> Most of the toxic air pollutants evaluated in the Community Air Screen are among the list of 187 hazardous air pollutants. Sometimes the terms toxic air pollutants and hazardous air pollutants are used interchangeably.

<sup>11</sup> The eight HAPs are: asbestos, beryllium, mercury, vinyl chloride, radionuclides, inorganic arsenic, benzene and coke oven emissions.

<sup>12</sup> The term hydrocarbon refers to organic compounds consisting entirely of hydrogen and carbon atoms. The majority of hydrocarbons found naturally occur in crude oil.

<sup>13</sup> Robert J. Martineau, Jr. and David P. Novello. *The Clean Air Act Handbook*, Second Edition. American Bar Association Publishing. 2004.

The 1990 CAAA empowered EPA to develop regulations that would require the development of fuels that would burn cleaner and would mandate new technology to reduce emissions of criteria air pollutants and HAPs from all motor vehicles (cars, trucks and buses). This two-fold approach has significantly reduced air pollution from motor vehicles, even as the number of vehicles and vehicle miles traveled has increased over the past twenty-two years. The Amendments also authorized the promulgation of emission standards for nonroad engines, included provisions to increase the regulatory life of vehicles, and required onboard emission monitoring equipment.

There are three general areas of regulatory focus in the national strategy to reduce air pollution from motor vehicles; clean cars and fuels, clean trucks and buses and diesel fuels, and the establishment of certification and compliance programs.<sup>14</sup> More stringent emission standards and cleaner fuel began with the Tier 2 vehicle standards and gasoline sulfur program which were phased in beginning in 2004 and fully implemented by 2009. Nationally, these two components have resulted in cleaner gasoline powered vehicles, as much as 77% to 95% cleaner compared to the 2003 model-year. Since the mid-1990s though, New York State has adopted the Low Emission Vehicle (LEV) program promulgated by the California Air Resources Board. The LEV emission standards achieve roughly the same reductions as Tier 2, but were phased in several years sooner.

The Department has also adopted regulations that require environmental performance labels be affixed to new vehicles delivered for sale in New York. The label contains quantitative information on emissions of criteria pollutants and greenhouse gases for new vehicles relative to the average new vehicle for the same year. This regulation furthers the goals of reducing air pollution from motor vehicles by providing consumers with clear information on the emissions of criteria pollutants and greenhouse gases for specific vehicles.<sup>15</sup>

The latest heavy-duty engine and vehicle standards and highway diesel fuel sulfur control requirements were phased in between 2007 and 2010. This program will result in each new truck and bus being more than 90% cleaner than pre-2007 models. By 2030, this regulation will provide annual emission reductions equivalent to removing the pollution from more than 90% of today's trucks and buses, or about 13 million trucks and buses. The motor vehicle certification and compliance programs will ensure that all vehicles are designed to meet new emission standards and will continue to meet those standards throughout their useful life.

The adoption of reformulated gasoline (RFG) in 1995 has resulted in significant decreases in ambient benzene concentrations for those areas where this program has been implemented. Section 211(k) of the CAA deemed that RFG must be sold in certain ozone non-attainment areas.<sup>16</sup> Federal rules limit the amount of benzene by volume in RFG gasoline. RFG is required in New York Metropolitan area (NYMA),<sup>17</sup> Orange County and Dutchess County. A reduction in the content of benzene in gasoline translates into reduced tailpipe and evaporative emissions of benzene. The use of reformulated gasoline in the NYMA has resulted in significant reductions of ambient air benzene concentrations.

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<sup>14</sup> United States Environmental Protection Agency (USEPA). 2005. Toward a Cleaner Future: Office of Transportation and Air Quality Progress Report 2005. Available On-Line: <http://www.epa.gov/otaq/about/420r05011.pdf>

<sup>15</sup> All passenger vehicle and light-duty trucks, model-year 2010 and newer.

<sup>16</sup> Ozone is a criteria pollutant. There are national ambient air quality standards (NAAQS) for each of the criteria pollutants. These standards apply to the concentration of a pollutant in outdoor air. If the air quality in a geographic area meets or does better than the national standard, it is called an attainment area; areas that don't meet the national standard are called nonattainment areas.

<sup>17</sup> NYMA consists of the following nine counties: Bronx, Kings, Nassau, New York, Queens, Richmond, Rockland, Suffolk and Westchester.

In 2007, EPA issued a more stringent rule to address releases of toxic air pollutants from motor vehicles and nonroad sources. The final standard will significantly lower emissions of benzene and other toxic air pollutants in three ways: (1) by further lowering the benzene content in gasoline (lower than 1995 RFG levels); (2) by reducing exhaust emission from passenger vehicles operated at cold temperatures (under 75 degrees Fahrenheit); and (3) by reducing emissions that evaporate from, and permeate through, portable fuel containers.

The New York State Diesel Emissions Reduction Act (DERA) was passed by the legislature and signed by the Governor in 2006 with the goal of reducing emissions of fine particulate matter from diesel vehicles being operated by or on behalf of the State and to help New York meet its air quality and public health objectives. DEC adopted regulations that require these heavy duty vehicles to comply with specific emission standards for particulate matter and requires them to use ultra-low sulfur diesel.

Because EPA's new heavy-duty highway and non-road diesel engine standards apply to engines manufactured after the year 2007, EPA launched the National Clean Diesel Campaign to address diesel pollutant releases from older existing vehicles.<sup>18</sup> As part of this campaign the federal government instituted a grant program, also known as DERA, to address diesel pollutant releases from older existing vehicles. In October 2008, EPA and DEC announced funding of over \$1 million for projects such as retrofitting school buses with new equipment to reduce pollutant releases. Additionally, EPA provided funds to DEC to purchase hybrid diesel electric marine engines for a new Hudson River patrol boat. The DERA grant program has been reauthorized for 2012 through 2016, with almost \$30 million appropriated for 2012.

As required under Federal regulations, DEC jointly administers with the New York State Department of Motor Vehicles, a state-run Inspection/Maintenance (I/M) program for the control and abatement of motor vehicle emissions. I/M programs are required in both ozone and carbon monoxide (CO) nonattainment areas, depending upon population and other specific criteria. All light duty<sup>19</sup> vehicles (ages 2 to 25) operating in the State are required to pass both a safety inspection and emission test. Those from model year 1996 or newer must pass an onboard diagnostic emission test. Older vehicles are subject to a visual check of emission control devices. All heavy duty diesel vehicles (HDDV)<sup>20</sup> operating in New York State with a few exemptions are subject to random roadside emissions inspections including smoke opacity tests. HDDV registered in the nine-county NYMA are subject to emissions inspections on an annual basis.

Finally, in addition to regulating emissions and fuels, the State has many policies to address idling vehicles and school bus emissions. The current laws are listed below:

- **School Bus Idling:** NYS Department of Education (NYSED) promulgated a law to address idling of buses and other vehicles at schools. The NYS Education Law 3637, promulgated on July 1, 2008, requires school districts to minimize the idling of school buses and other vehicles owned or leased by the school district on or in front of school grounds. It is the policy of NYSED that this law applies to all school districts.<sup>21</sup>
- **State and City Idling Laws:** NYS and New York City (NYC) have laws addressing idling. The State law applies to all on-road heavy duty vehicles (gross vehicle weight exceeding 8,500 pounds) and prohibits idling for more than five consecutive minutes,

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<sup>18</sup> USEPA's National Clean Diesel Campaign. Available: <http://epa.gov/cleandiesel/index.htm#voluntary> [accessed 10/14/08].

<sup>19</sup> Vehicles with a gross vehicle weight rating of 8,500 pounds and less.

<sup>20</sup> Vehicles with a gross vehicle weight rating exceeding 8,500 pounds.

<sup>21</sup> Reducing School Bus Idling - Requirements and Notice Materials for School Districts. Available: <http://www.emsc.nyed.gov/schoolbus/anti-idling/> [accessed 10/14/08].

providing exceptions for safety and other considerations.<sup>22</sup> The City law prohibits idling for longer than three minutes while parking, standing or stopping, with specific exceptions for safety and operation of buses.<sup>23</sup>

- In February 2009, the NYC Council passed legislation to limit the idling in all **NYC public or private school zones** to one minute.<sup>24</sup> The school zone created by the law encompasses all streets that immediately border public and private schools. The law also requires city agencies to submit idling violation reports to the City Council. Additionally, the City Council voted to extend enforcement authority for NYC idling laws to the Department of Parks and Recreation and Department of Sanitation.

In summary, the goals of the federal and state air pollution control programs are consistent with each other and promote the economic and social well-being of the community in NYS.

## New York State Air Quality

The strategies discussed previously to reduce toxic air pollutants from stationary and mobile sources have resulted in significant improvements in air quality. An historical perspective that reflects the success of these efforts can be seen in DEC's Bureau of Air Quality Surveillance (BAQS) report titled: NYS Ambient Air Monitoring Program Network Assessment (May 2010).<sup>25</sup> The Network Assessment report shows historical trends for criteria pollutants and some toxic air pollutants. Historical trends for common toxic air pollutants frequently detected in DEC's monitoring network can be found in Trends for Specific VOC Compounds<sup>26</sup> or in Volatile Organics Data Summaries.<sup>27</sup>

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<sup>22</sup> New York State Department of Environmental Conservation Regulations. Available: <http://www.dec.ny.gov/regs/4256.html> [accessed 10/14/08].

<sup>23</sup> Laws of New York State <http://public.leginfo.state.ny.us/menugtf.cgi>

<sup>24</sup> Local Law to amend the administrative code of the city of New York, in relation to engine idling. Available online at: <http://webdocs.nyccouncil.info/textfiles/Int%200631-2007.htm?CFID=45987&CFTOKEN=43880504> [accessed 2/18/09].

<sup>25</sup> Available online at: <http://www.dec.ny.gov/chemical/65574.html>

<sup>26</sup> Available online at: <http://www.dec.ny.gov/chemical/66472.html>

<sup>27</sup> Available online at: <http://www.dec.ny.gov/chemical/29680.html>

## Appendix B -

### Uses, Sources and Potential Exposure to Toxic Air Pollutants Evaluated in the Community Air Screen Program<sup>1</sup>

#### 1,1,1-Trichloroethane<sup>2</sup> (71-55-6)<sup>3</sup>

##### *Uses*

Because 1,1,1-trichloroethane is an ozone-depleting chemical, production of it has been highly regulated. 1,1,1-Trichloroethane was used as a solvent and degreasing agent in industry. Currently, it is almost entirely used as a precursor for hydrofluorocarbons, commonly used for refrigeration. On a limited basis, it may be used for essential applications such as medical devices and aviation safety.

##### *Sources and Potential Exposure*

1,1,1-Trichloroethane was used an ingredient in consumer products such as household cleaners, glues, and aerosol sprays. Therefore, the general population may be exposed to limited amounts through volatilization from these products and primarily indoors rather than outdoors.

#### 1,1,2,2-Tetrachloroethane<sup>4</sup> (79-34-5)

##### *Uses*

There is very little production of 1,1,2,2-tetrachloroethane in the U.S. Any remaining production would likely be for on-site uses as a chemical intermediate, as a trace constituent with other chemicals, or as part of a waste stream in releases to the environment. In the past, 1,1,2,2-tetrachloroethane was used in large amounts to produce trichloroethylene, tetrachloroethylene, and 1,2-dichloroethylene. It was also used as a solvent, in cleaning and degreasing metals, in paint removers, varnishes and lacquers, in photographic films, as an extractant for oils and fats, and in pesticides.

##### *Sources and Potential Exposure*

As it is no longer widely used in the U.S. as an end-product, present sources of 1,1,2,2-tetrachloroethane are fugitive emissions or discharges when it is generated as a by-product and during chemical production activities in which it is an intermediate product. Exposure of the general population is expected to be very low. Limited occupational exposure to 1,1,2,2-

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<sup>1</sup> Unless otherwise noted, the primary source for information on uses, sources and potential exposure was the USEPA's Health Effects Notebook for Hazardous Air Pollutants available online at:

<http://www.epa.gov/ttnatw01/hlthef/hapindex.html>

<sup>2</sup> <http://www.atsdr.cdc.gov/toxprofiles/tp.asp?id=432&tid=76>

<sup>3</sup> Number in parenthesis is called the CAS number. It is a unique identifier assigned to each chemical by the Chemical Abstract Service (CAS) which is a function of the American Chemical Society. CAS numbers are assigned because the same chemical can be identified by many different names. For example, 1,1,1-trichloroethane is also called methyl chloroform, Solvent 111, Genklene and R-140a.

<sup>4</sup> Agency for Toxic Substances and Disease Registry (ATSDR). Toxicological Profile for 1,1,2,2-Tetrachloroethane (Update). U.S. Public Health Service, U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Atlanta, GA. 2008.

tetrachloroethane may occur through inhalation of the vapors or through skin contact due to spills or accidents in the workplace.

## **1,1,2-Trichloroethane (79-00-5)**

### ***Uses***

1,1,2-Trichloroethane is primarily used as a chemical intermediate in the production of 1,1-dichloroethene. It is also used as a solvent for chlorinated rubbers, fats, oils, waxes, and resins.

### ***Sources and Potential Exposure***

1,1,2-Trichloroethane has not been reported in food or soil, and exposure from contaminated drinking water appears to be rare. Exposure to 1,1,2-trichloroethane may occur in the workplace where it is used as a solvent.

## **1,1-Dichloroethane<sup>5</sup> (75-34-3)**

### ***Uses***

1,1-Dichloroethane is used as an intermediate in the manufacture of other products such as vinyl chloride, 1,1,1-trichloroethane, and to a lesser extent high vacuum rubber. It also has limited use as a solvent for plastics, oils, and fats, and is used as both a cleaning agent and a degreaser.

### ***Sources and Potential Exposure***

Based on its industrial use, 1,1-dichloroethane is primarily released to the atmosphere, and people are potentially exposed to this chemical through the inhalation or ingestion of contaminated air or water. However, because data available on production, import, export, use, and disposal are limited, it is difficult to estimate the potential for human exposure.

## **1,1-Dichloroethylene (75-35-4)**

### ***Uses***

1,1-Dichloroethylene is primarily used as a chemical intermediate for organic chemical synthesis. It is also used in the production of polyvinylidene chloride copolymers. The major application of these chloride copolymers is in the production of flexible films for food packaging (SARAN® and VELON® wraps).

### ***Sources and Potential Exposure***

Air releases, primarily from emissions from polymer synthesis and fabrication industries, are the greatest source of ambient 1,1-dichloroethylene. Occupational exposure to 1,1-dichloroethylene may occur by inhalation or dermal contact. 1,1-Dichloroethylene has been detected at low levels in a number of drinking water supplies across the United States.

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<sup>5</sup> Agency for Toxic Substances and Disease Registry (ATSDR). Toxicological Profile for 1,1-Dichloroethane. U.S. Public Health Service, U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Atlanta, GA. 1990.

## 1,2,4-Trichlorobenzene<sup>6</sup> (120-82-1)

### Uses

1,2,4-Trichlorobenzene is primarily used as a solvent to dissolve special materials as oils, waxes, resins, greases, and rubber. It is also frequently used to produce dyes and textiles. 1,2,4-Trichlorobenzene is also one of the most important solvents used for extracting fullerenes from soot.

### Sources and Potential Exposure

The general population is exposed to 1,2,4-trichlorobenzene from inhalation of ambient air and ingestion of food and drinking water. Exposures may be greater near heavily industrialized areas or at Superfund sites where this solvent is present.

## 1,2,4-Trimethylbenzene<sup>7,8</sup> (95-63-6)

### Uses

1,2,4-Trimethylbenzene is used as a solvent in manufacture of dyes, perfumes, resins and in the manufacture of pharmaceuticals. It is used as a solvent and paint thinner. Production of 1,2,4-trimethylbenzene occurs during petroleum refining as a major component of the C<sub>9</sub> aromatic hydrocarbon fraction. It typically constitutes around 40% of the C<sub>9</sub> fraction. Another primary use is as a gasoline additive.

### Sources and Potential Exposure

1,2,4-Trimethylbenzene is released directly to the environment as a component of gasoline and as an emission from gasoline-powered vehicles, municipal waste-treatment plants, and coal-fired power stations. Occupational exposure may also occur from industrial uses.

## 1,2-Dibromoethane (106-93-4)

### Uses

1,2-dibromoethane is the third most common groundwater contaminant due to leaking of underground storage tanks.<sup>9</sup> 1,2-dibromoethane appears to be formed naturally by algae growth<sup>10,11</sup> and has been detected in ocean waters and air.<sup>12</sup> 1,2-dibromoethane was used as a

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<sup>6</sup> Agency for Toxic Substances and Disease Registry (ATSDR). Toxicological Profile for Trichlorobenzenes. U.S. Public Health Service, U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Atlanta, GA. 2010.

<sup>7</sup> U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. Hazardous Substances Data Bank (HSDB, online database). National Toxicology Information Program, National Library of Medicine, Bethesda, MD.

<sup>8</sup> [http://www.epa.gov/chemfact/s\\_trimet.txt](http://www.epa.gov/chemfact/s_trimet.txt)

<sup>9</sup> Ron Falta. *EDB and DCA from Leaded Gasoline*. Clemson University Symposium presentation. 2005 Available online at: [http://www.clemson.edu/ces/hydro/symposium/2005\\_present/Falta\\_EDB.pdf](http://www.clemson.edu/ces/hydro/symposium/2005_present/Falta_EDB.pdf)

<sup>10</sup> Laternus, F., et.al., *Finding the scattered pieces of the mechanisms behind the formation of volatile halogen-containing C<sub>1</sub>- and C<sub>2</sub>-compounds by polar and cold-temperate macroalgae*. Reports on Polar and Marine Research. 271(2008).

<sup>11</sup> Laternus, Frank. *Release of Volatile Halogenated Organic Compounds by Unialgal Cultures of Polar Macroalgae*. Chemosphere 31(6). 1995.

<sup>12</sup> T.H. Class, K. Ballschmiter. *Chemistry of Organic Traces in Air, VIII: Sources and Distribution of Bromo- and Bromochloromethanes in Marine Air and Surfacewater of the Atlantic Ocean*. Journal of Atmospheric Chemistry 6 (1988) 35-46.

fumigant to protect against insects, pests, and nematodes in citrus, vegetable, and grain crops, and as a fumigant for turf, particularly on golf courses. In 1984, EPA banned its use as a soil and grain fumigant. Currently, there are no registered allowable pesticide or fumigant uses for 1,2-dibromoethane in New York.<sup>13</sup> Trace quantities of 1,2-dibromoethane emissions have been measured from natural gas fired reciprocating engines used at pipeline compressor and storage stations.<sup>14</sup> It is still used in some engine lubricants and greases<sup>15</sup> and as an intermediate for dyes, resins, waxes, and gums.

1,2-dibromoethane is used in leaded aviation fuel (known as avgas)<sup>16</sup> because it acts as a lead scavengers.<sup>17</sup> When aircraft power down such as during descent or when an aircraft is idling or taxiing on the ground, incomplete combustion occurs because the engine is not running as efficiently as it does under full power. The hotter the temperature inside the combustion chamber of the engine, the more efficiently the fuel is burned.<sup>18</sup> Incomplete combustion results in the release of carbon monoxide and unburned fuel.<sup>19</sup> EPA proposed changes to aviation fuel primarily to address lead emissions but also to address the inclusion of 1,2-dibromoethane in fuel. EPA concluded that aircraft using leaded fuel are currently an ambient source of 1,2-dibromoethane.<sup>20</sup> Aircraft operating on avgas have spark-ignited internal-combustion engines which are propeller airplanes. At large airports the proportion of flights using avgas is small. For example, at the LaGuardia and JFK airports less than 1% of the flights use this type of fuel.<sup>21</sup> Since 1988 the amount of aviation gasoline supplied in the U.S. has steadily decreased with a 50% reduction between 1988 and 2012.<sup>22</sup>

### *Sources and Potential Exposure*

Possible sources of 1,2-dibromoethane emissions to the ambient air are production and processing facilities. Exposure could occur from inhalation of ambient air near industries that use 1,2-dibromoethane or through the ingestion of contaminated drinking water. Exposures also can occur from aircraft using avgas or racing cars using leaded gasoline.

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<sup>13</sup> Personal communication on 2/27/2014 with Jeanine Broughel, Chief, Product Registration and Pest Management Alternatives Section, Bureau of Pest Management for DEC.

<sup>14</sup> US Environmental Protection Agency 2000. AP 42, Compilation of Air Pollutant Emission Factors. Volume 1, Fifth Edition. Available On-line at: <http://www.epa.gov/ttn/chief/ap42/ch03/index.html>

<sup>15</sup> US Environmental Protection Agency 2009. Hazard Characterization Document. Screening –Level Hazard Characterization 1,2-Dibromoethane (CASRN 106-93-4).

<sup>16</sup> Seyferth, D., "The Rise and Fall of Tetraethyllead. 2", *Organometallics*, 2003, volume 22, pages 5154-5178.

<sup>17</sup> US Environmental Protection Agency. 2006 Historical Uses (1,2-dibromoethane and 1,2-dichloroethane). Cleaning Up Underground Storage Tank Releases. 1,2-dibromoethane is added to tetraethyl lead blend with a composition by weight of approximately 18% of the blend. 1,2-dichloroethane is also added at 19% by weight of the blend.

<sup>18</sup> John P. Hinz, Lt Col David M. Sonntag, Capt. Brian M. Clarke. *Interim Base-Level Guide for Exposure to Jet Fuel and Additives* December 2011.

<sup>19</sup> Glenn Research Center – Safeguarding Our Atmosphere. Available online at: <http://www.nasa.gov/centers/glenn/about/fs10grc.html>

<sup>20</sup> U.S. Environmental Protection Agency. *Advanced Notice of Proposed Rulemaking on Lead Emissions from Piston-Engine Aircraft Using Leaded Aviation Gasoline: Proposed Rule*. Federal Register, Vol 75, No 81. 4/28/2010. Available online at: <http://www.gpo.gov/fdsys/pkg/FR-2010-04-28/html/2010-9603.htm>

<sup>21</sup> Federal Aviation Agency FAA Operations & Performance Data. Available online at: <https://www.faa.gov>

<sup>22</sup> U.S. Energy Information Administration. Petroleum & Other Liquids. U.S. Product Supplied of Aviation Gasoline. Available online at: <http://www.eia.gov/dnav/pet/hist/LeafHandler.ashx?n=PET&s=MGAUPUS1&f=A>

## 1,2-Dichlorobenzene<sup>23,24,25</sup> (95-50-1)

### *Uses*

The greatest use of 1,2-dichlorobenzene is as a chemical intermediate for making agricultural chemicals, primarily herbicides. Other present and past uses include: solvent for waxes, gums, resins, wood preservatives, paints; insecticide for termites and borers; in making dyes; as a coolant, deodorizer, and degreaser.

### *Sources and Potential Exposure*

Occupational exposure to 1,2-dichlorobenzene may be through inhalation and dermal contact with this compound at workplaces where 1,2-dichlorobenzene is produced or used. The general population may be exposed to 1,2-dichlorobenzene via inhalation of ambient air, ingestion of food and drinking water. 1,2-Dichlorobenzene is a by-product in the manufacture of 1,4-dichlorobenzene and may be a pathway by which 1,2-dichlorobenzene is released into the environment.

## 1,2-Dichloroethane<sup>26</sup> (107-06-2)

### *Uses*

1,2-Dichloroethane is currently used as a chemical intermediate and as a solvent in closed systems. In the U.S., about 98% of the 1,2-dichloroethane produced is used to manufacture vinyl chloride. Smaller amounts of 1,2-dichloroethane are used in the synthesis of 1,1-dichloroethene, 1,1,1-trichloroethane, trichloroethene, tetrachloroethene, aziridines, and ethylene diamines and in chlorinated solvents.

### *Sources and Potential Exposure*

There are no known natural sources of 1,2-dichloroethane. Releases of this compound to the environment may result from the manufacture, use, storage, distribution, and disposal of 1,2-dichloroethane.

## 1,2-Dichloropropane<sup>27,28</sup> (78-87-5)

### *Uses*

1,2-Dichloropropane is used as a chemical intermediate in the production of chlorinated organic chemicals, as an industrial solvent, in ion exchange manufacture, in toluene diisocyanate production, in photographic film manufacture, for paper coating, and for petroleum catalyst regeneration. 1,2-Dichloropropane is used in furniture finish, dry cleaning fluid, and paint remover, gum processing, metal degreasing, oil processing, and as a rubber- and wax-making

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<sup>23</sup> U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. Hazardous Substances Data Bank (HSDB, online database). National Toxicology Information Program, National Library of Medicine, Bethesda, MD.

<sup>24</sup> <http://www.epa.gov/ogwdw/pdfs/factsheets/voc/tech/o-dichlo.pdf>

<sup>25</sup> Agency for Toxic Substances and Disease Registry (ATSDR). Toxicological Profile for Dichlorobenzenes. U.S. Public Health Service, U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Atlanta, GA. 2006.

<sup>26</sup> Agency for Toxic Substances and Disease Registry (ATSDR). Toxicological Profile for 1,2-Dichloroethane. U.S. Public Health Service, U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Atlanta, GA. 2001.

<sup>27</sup> USEPA's Health Effects Notebook for Hazardous Air Pollutants

<sup>28</sup> U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. Hazardous Substances Data Bank (HSDB, online database). National Toxicology Information Program, National Library of Medicine, Bethesda, MD.

agent, and a chemical intermediate in the production of tetrachloroethylene and carbon tetrachloride. Previously used as an agricultural soil fumigant.

#### ***Sources and Potential Exposure***

Occupational exposure to 1,2-dichloropropane may occur during its production, during its use in chemical reactions or as an industrial solvent, or from evaporation from wastewater that contains the chemical. General population exposures may occur if exposed to contaminated water sources.<sup>29</sup>

### **1,3,5-Trimethylbenzene<sup>30</sup> (108-67-8)**

#### ***Uses***

Used as a paint thinner, solvent, and motor fuel component. It is also used as an intermediate in the synthesis of dyes and antioxidants.

#### ***Sources and Potential Exposure***

1,3,5-Trimethylbenzene is released directly to the environment as a component of gasoline and as an emission from gasoline-powered vehicles, municipal waste-treatment plants, and coal-fired power stations. Workers and the general population that operate gasoline-pumping stations and off-set printers may be exposed 1,3,5-trimethylbenzene.

### **1,3-Butadiene<sup>31</sup> (106-99-0)**

#### ***Uses***

1,3-Butadiene is used in the production of rubber and plastics. It is also used in copolymers including acrylics.

#### ***Sources and Potential Exposure***

Sources of 1,3-butadiene released into the air include motor vehicle exhaust, manufacturing and processing facilities, forest fires or other combustion, and cigarette smoke. Higher levels of 1,3-butadiene may be found in highly industrialized cities or near oil refineries, chemical manufacturing plants, and plastic and rubber factories. 1,3-Butadiene has been found in drinking water and in plastic or rubber food containers, and very low levels in some food samples. Occupational exposure to 1,3-butadiene may occur in the rubber, plastics, and resins industries.

### **1,3-Dichlorobenzene<sup>32</sup> (541-73-1)**

#### ***Uses***

1,3-Dichlorobenzene has been used in the production of herbicides and insecticides as well as in the production of pharmaceuticals and dyes.

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<sup>29</sup> Environmental Working Group – Drinking Water Quality Report. <http://www.ewg.org/tap-water/whatsinyourwater/2983/NY/NewYork/12-Dichloropropane/>

<sup>30</sup> U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. Hazardous Substances Data Bank (HSDB, online database). National Toxicology Information Program, National Library of Medicine, Bethesda, MD.

<sup>31</sup> Agency for Toxic Substances and Disease Registry (ATSDR). Toxicological Profile for 1,3-Butadiene. U.S. Public Health Service, U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Atlanta, GA. 2009.

<sup>32</sup> Agency for Toxic Substances and Disease Registry (ATSDR). Toxicological Profile for Dichlorobenzenes. U.S. Public Health Service, U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Atlanta, GA. 2006.

### ***Sources and Potential Exposure***

1,3-Dichlorobenzene is not found frequently in the air of homes and buildings because this chemical is not used in household products. Whereas, 1,4-dichlorobenzene is used as a deodorant. Occupational exposures may occur where this chemical is used in production.

## **1,4-Dichlorobenzene<sup>33</sup> (106-46-7)**

### ***Uses***

For the past 20 years, 1,4-dichlorobenzene has been used principally (25–55% of all uses) as a space deodorant for toilets and refuse containers, and as a fumigant for control of moths, molds, and mildews. In recent years, the use of 1,4-dichlorobenzene in the production of polyphenylene sulfide resin has increased steadily (25– 50% of its total use). 1,4-Dichlorobenzene is also used as an intermediate in the production of other chemicals such as 1,2,4-trichlorobenzene (approximately 10%). Minor uses of 1,4-dichlorobenzene include its use in the control of certain tree-boring insects and ants, and in the control of blue mold in tobacco seed beds.

### ***Sources and Potential Exposure***

People are exposed to 1,4-dichlorobenzene mainly by breathing vapors from 1,4-dichlorobenzene products used in the home, such as mothballs and toilet-deodorizer blocks. Reported levels of 1,4-dichlorobenzene in some homes and public restrooms have ranged from 0.291 to 272 ppb of 1,4-dichlorobenzene in air. 1,4-Dichlorobenzene has been found in 13% of surface water samples collected during a national survey. These samples contained about 0.008–154 ppb of 1,4-dichlorobenzene.

Individuals can be occupationally exposed to 1,4-dichlorobenzene in workplace air at much higher levels than the general public is exposed. Levels measured in the air of factories that make or process 1,4-dichlorobenzene products have ranged from 5.6 to 748 ppm of air. In addition, people who live or work near industrial facilities or hazardous waste sites that have high levels of 1,4-dichlorobenzene may have greater exposure to these compounds due to emissions from the facilities and waste sites. People who work or live in buildings where air fresheners, toilet block deodorants, or moth balls containing 1,4-dichlorobenzene are used also are expected to have a higher exposure to this compound, which could occur from skin contact as well as by breathing.

## ***$\alpha$ -Chlorotoluene (Benzylchloride)<sup>34,35</sup> (100-44-7)***

### ***Uses***

The primary use of *a*-chlorotoluene is in the manufacture of benzyl butyl phthalate and other flexible poly(vinyl chloride) uses such as food packaging. *a*-Chlorotoluene is used as a chemical intermediate in the manufacture of certain dyes and pharmaceutical, perfume and flavor products. *a*-Chlorotoluene can be used in the manufacture of synthetic tannins and as a gasoline gum inhibitor.

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<sup>33</sup> Agency for Toxic Substances and Disease Registry (ATSDR). Toxicological Profile for Dichlorobenzenes. U.S. Public Health Service, U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Atlanta, GA. 2006

<sup>34</sup> USEPA's Health Effects Notebook for Hazardous Air Pollutants

<sup>35</sup> U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. Hazardous Substances Data Bank (HSDB, online database). National Toxicology Information Program, National Library of Medicine, Bethesda, MD.

### ***Sources and Potential Exposure***

Sources of *a*-chlorotoluene emissions into the air include emissions or venting with other gases in industrial settings. Emissions of *a*-chlorotoluene from floor tile plasticized by butyl benzyl phthalate have been reported. *a*-Chlorotoluene has also been detected in emissions from the burning of polyvinyl chloride, neoprene and rigid urethane foam compounds. Individuals may be exposed to *a*-chlorotoluene through breathing contaminated air or from exposure to water or soil that has been contaminated with *a*-chlorotoluene. Individuals may be exposed to *a*-chlorotoluene if exposed to gasoline where this chemical has been used.

## **Benzene<sup>36</sup> (71-43-2)**

### ***Uses***

Benzene is used as a constituent in motor fuels; as a solvent for fats, waxes, resins, oils, inks, paints, plastics, and rubber; in the extraction of oils from seeds and nuts; and in photogravure printing. It is also used as a chemical intermediate. Benzene is also used in the manufacture of detergents, explosives, pharmaceuticals, and dyestuffs.

### ***Sources and Potential Exposure***

Everyone is exposed to a small amount of benzene every day, primarily through breathing air that contains benzene. The major sources of benzene exposure are tobacco smoke, automobile service stations, exhaust from motor vehicles, and industrial emissions. Air releases from products that contain benzene, such as glues, paints, furniture wax, and detergents, can also be a source of exposure. Auto exhaust and industrial emissions account for about 20% of the total national exposure to benzene. About half of the exposure to benzene in the United States results from smoking tobacco or from exposure to tobacco smoke. Individuals employed in industries that manufacture or use benzene may be exposed to the highest levels of benzene. These industries include benzene production (petrochemicals, petroleum refining, and coke and coal chemical manufacturing), rubber tire manufacturing, and storage or transport of benzene and petroleum products containing benzene. Other workers who may be exposed to benzene include workers in the steel industry, printers, rubber workers, shoe makers, laboratory technicians, firefighters, and gas station employees. Individuals may also be exposed to benzene by consuming contaminated water. Non-anthropogenic sources of benzene include volcanoes and forest fires.

## **Bromodichloromethane<sup>37,38</sup> (75-27-4)**

### ***Uses***

The principal use of bromodichloromethane is as a chemical intermediate for organic synthesis and as a laboratory reagent.

### ***Sources and Potential Exposure***

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<sup>36</sup> Agency for Toxic Substances and Disease Registry (ATSDR). Toxicological Profile for Benzene. U.S. Public Health Service, U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Atlanta, GA. 2007

<sup>37</sup> Agency for Toxic Substances and Disease Registry (ATSDR). Toxicological Profile for Bromodichloromethane. U.S. Public Health Service, U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Atlanta, GA. 1989

<sup>38</sup> U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. Hazardous Substances Data Bank (HSDB, online database). National Toxicology Information Program, National Library of Medicine, Bethesda, MD.

Bromodichloromethane's production and use as a chemical intermediate and solvent may result in its release to the environment through various waste streams. The general population is exposed to bromodichloromethane through consumption of contaminated drinking water, beverages, and food products. The contamination is a result of inadvertent formation during chlorination treatment of the drinking water and subsequent use of chlorinated tap water to produce food products. Exposure can also occur through inhalation of background levels in ambient air and through dermal exposure in chlorinated swimming pool water. The predominant anthropogenic source of bromodichloromethane release to the environment is its inadvertent formation during chlorination treatment processes of water.

## **Bromomethane (Methyl bromide) (74-83-9)**

### *Uses*

The primary use of methyl bromide is as a fumigant in soil to control fungi, nematodes, and weeds; in space fumigation of food commodities (e.g., grains); and in storage facilities (such as mills, warehouses, vaults, ships, and freight cars) to control insects and rodents.

### *Sources and Potential Exposure*

Workers who fumigate homes and fields may be exposed to high levels of methyl bromide if proper safety precautions are not followed. Some methyl bromide is formed naturally by algae or kelp in the ocean.

## **Carbon disulfide (75-15-0)**

### *Uses*

Carbon disulfide is used predominantly in the manufacture of rayon, cellophane, and carbon tetrachloride. Carbon disulfide is also used to produce rubber chemicals and pesticides.

### *Sources and Potential Exposure*

Carbon disulfide was one of the seven sulfur-gas released from problem drywall installed in U.S. homes.<sup>39</sup> The main route of exposure to this compound is in the workplace. Workers in plants that use carbon disulfide in their manufacturing processes have a high degree of exposure potential. Releases of carbon disulfide from industrial processes are almost exclusively to the air; individuals in proximity to these sites may be exposed. Carbon disulfide has been detected in some samples of drinking water. Low amounts of carbon disulfide may be emitted naturally from volcanoes and marshes.

## **Carbon tetrachloride<sup>40</sup> (56-23-5)**

### *Uses*

The major use of carbon tetrachloride has historically been for the production of chlorofluorocarbons, such as dichlorodifluoromethane (F-12) and trichlorofluoromethane (F-11),

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<sup>39</sup> Agency for Toxic Substances and Disease Registry (ATSDR). Toxicological Profile for Carbon disulfide. U.S. Public Health Service, U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Atlanta, GA. Addendum to the Profile August 2012.

<sup>40</sup> Agency for Toxic Substances and Disease Registry (ATSDR). Toxicological Profile for Carbon tetrachloride. U.S. Public Health Service, U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Atlanta, GA. 2005.

which are used primarily as refrigerants. Historically, it was widely used as a cleaning fluid in the home and as a degreaser in industry. Carbon tetrachloride was phased out in January 1996 by the Montreal Protocol. It is only available for those uses for which no effective substitute has been found. The atmospheric half-life for carbon tetrachloride is 50 years or more and therefore, it will remain a ubiquitously distributed airborne contaminant for many years to come.

### ***Sources and Potential Exposure***

The general public is exposed to a small amount carbon tetrachloride everyday because of global circulating concentrations because this chemical has a long atmospheric half-life. Individuals may be exposed to carbon tetrachloride in the air from accidental releases from production and uses, and from its disposal in landfills where it may evaporate into the air or leach into groundwater. Carbon tetrachloride is also a common contaminant of indoor air; the sources of exposure appear to be building materials or products, such as cleaning agents, used in the home. Workers directly involved in the manufacture or use of carbon tetrachloride are most likely to have significant exposures to carbon tetrachloride. Individuals may also be exposed to carbon tetrachloride by drinking contaminated water.

## **Chlorobenzene (108-90-7)**

### ***Uses***

The primary uses of chlorobenzene are as a solvent for pesticide formulations, diisocyanate manufacture, and degreasing automobile parts and for the production of nitrochlorobenzene. In the past, chlorobenzene was used as an intermediate in phenol and DDT production.

### ***Sources and Potential Exposure***

Exposure to chlorobenzene appears to be primarily occupational. In urban areas, chlorobenzene may be released to the ambient air during its manufacture and use.

## **Chloroethane (75-00-3)**

### ***Uses***

Chloroethane is used in the production of ethyl cellulose, use as a solvent, refrigerant, in the manufacture of dyes, chemicals, and pharmaceuticals, and as a medication to alleviate pain associated with insect burns and stings. In the past, chloroethane was used in the production of tetraethyl lead, an anti-knock additive to leaded gasoline. Government-mandated reduction in the amount of lead additives used in gasoline in the United States and a shift to the use of unleaded gasoline has caused a drastic reduction in the amount of chloroethane required for the production of tetraethyl lead.

### ***Sources and Potential Exposure***

Sources of possible chloroethane exposure include the inhalation of contaminated air and ingestion of contaminated drinking water at very low levels. The general population can be exposed to chloroethane by skin contact with consumer products that contain chloroethane such as solvents and refrigerants. Occupational exposure by inhalation or dermal contact with chloroethane can occur in industries such as medical and health services; automotive dealers and service stations; wholesale trade, electric, gas, and sanitary services; machinery (except electrical) and special trade contractors; fabricated metal productions; printing and publishing; painting; rubber and plastic products; and food.

## Chloroform (67-66-3)

### *Uses*

The vast majority of the chloroform produced in the United States is used to make HCFC-22. The rest is produced for export and for miscellaneous uses. Chloroform was used in the past as an extraction solvent for fats, oils, greases, and other products; as a dry cleaning spot remover; in fire extinguishers; as a fumigant; and as an anesthetic. However, chloroform is no longer used in these products.

### *Sources and Potential Exposure*

Chloroform may be released to the air from a large number of sources related to its manufacture and use, as well as its formation in the chlorination of drinking water, wastewater, and swimming pools. Pulp and paper mills, hazardous waste sites, and sanitary landfills are also sources of air emissions. Human exposure to chloroform may occur through drinking water, where chloroform is formed as a result of the chlorination of naturally occurring organic materials found in raw water supplies. Chloroform may also be found in some foods and beverages, largely from the use of tap water during production processes.

## Chloromethane (74-87-3)

### *Uses*

Chloromethane is used mainly in the production of silicones where it is used to make methylate silicon. It is also used in the production of agricultural chemicals, methyl cellulose, quaternary amines, and butyl rubber and for miscellaneous uses including tetramethyl lead. Chloromethane was used widely in refrigerators in the past, but generally this use has been taken over by newer chemicals such as Freon.

### *Sources and Potential Exposure*

Chloromethane is formed in the oceans by natural processes (e.g., marine phytoplankton) and from biomass burning in grasslands and forested areas (e.g., forest fires); it has been detected at low levels in air all over the world. Other sources of exposure to chloromethane include cigarette smoke, polystyrene insulation, and aerosol propellants; home burning of wood, coal, or certain plastics; and chlorinated swimming pools. Chloromethane is also present in some lakes and streams and has been found in drinking water at very low levels. Occupations that present a higher risk of exposure include building contracting, metal industries, transportation, car dealers, and service-station attendants.

## cis1,3-Dichloropropene (542-75-6)

### *Uses*

*Cis*-1,3-Dichloropropene is the predominant component of several formulations used in agriculture as soil fumigants for parasitic nematodes.

### *Sources and Potential Exposure*

Workers may be occupationally exposed to 1,3-dichloropropene, dermally or by inhalation, during its manufacture, formulation, or application as a soil fumigant. The general public may be exposed via inhalation near source areas or from the consumption of contaminated drinking water from wells near some hazardous waste sites.

## **cis-1,2-Dichloroethylene<sup>41</sup> (156-59-2)**

### ***Uses***

*Cis*-1,2-Dichloroethylene has been used as a solvent for fats, phenols, camphor, and also to retard fermentation. It has been used in the rubber manufacturing, as a refrigerant, an additive to dye and lacquer solutions, a low-temperature solvent for heat-sensitive substances (eg, caffeine), constituent of perfumes and thermoplastics and used in organic synthesis and medicine.

### ***Sources and Potential Exposure***

Occupational exposures may occur where this chemical is used in manufacturing. Monitoring data indicate that the general population may be exposed to cis-1,2-dichloroethylene via drinking water containing this compound.

## **Dichlorodifluoromethane<sup>42</sup> (75-71-8)**

### ***Uses***

Historical use has been as a refrigerant. Fully halogenated chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs) such as dichlorodifluoromethane were scheduled for production phase-out in 1987 by the Montreal Protocol. Although originally scheduled for 50% production phase-out by the year 2000 in developed countries, the worsening ozone depletion has forced acceleration of the CFC phase-out.

### ***Sources and Potential Exposure***

Due to its long atmospheric residence time, the general population may be exposed to dichlorodifluoromethane via inhalation of ambient air.

## **Dichlorotetrafluoroethane (76-14-2)**

### ***Uses***

Historical use has been as a refrigerant, blowing agent for cellular polymers, and foaming agent in fire extinguishing. Fully halogenated chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs) such as dichlorodifluoromethane were scheduled for production phase-out in 1987 by the Montreal Protocol. Although originally scheduled for 50% production phase-out by the year 2000 in developed countries, the worsening ozone depletion has forced acceleration of the CFC phase-out.

### ***Sources and Potential Exposure***

Due to its long atmospheric residence time, the general population may be exposed to dichlorotetrafluoroethane via inhalation of ambient air.

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<sup>41</sup> U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. Hazardous Substances Data Bank (HSDB, online database). National Toxicology Information Program, National Library of Medicine, Bethesda, MD.

<sup>42</sup> U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. Hazardous Substances Data Bank (HSDB, online database). National Toxicology Information Program, National Library of Medicine, Bethesda, MD.

## Ethylbenzene<sup>43</sup> (100-41-4)

### *Uses*

Ethylbenzene is used primarily in the production of styrene. It is also used as a solvent, as a constituent of asphalt and naphtha, and in fuels.

### *Sources and Potential Exposure*

Exposure to ethylbenzene occurs from the use of consumer products, gasoline, pesticides, solvents, carpet glues, varnishes, paints, and tobacco smoke. Occupational exposure to ethylbenzene occurs in factories that use ethylbenzene to produce other chemicals; for gas and oil workers; and for varnish workers, spray painters, and persons involved in gluing operations.

## Hexachloro-1,3-butadiene (87-68-3)

### *Uses*

Hexachlorobutadiene is used mainly as an intermediate in the manufacture of rubber compounds. It is also used in the production of lubricants, as a fluid for gyroscopes, as a heat transfer liquid, and in hydraulic fluids.

### *Sources and Potential Exposure*

Persons working in industries where hexachlorobutadiene is formed or used may be exposed to the chemical. Individuals who consume large amounts of fish from contaminated waters may also be exposed to hexachlorobutadiene.

## m,p-Xylene<sup>44</sup> (1330-20-7)

### *Uses*

Xylenes are primarily used in the production of ethylbenzene and as solvents in products such as paints and coatings, and are blended into gasoline.

### *Sources and Potential Exposure*

Mixed xylenes are distributed throughout the environment; they have been detected in air, rainwater, soils, surface water, sediments, drinking water, and aquatic organisms. Xylenes are released into the atmosphere as fugitive emissions from industrial sources, from auto exhaust, and through volatilization from their use as solvents and from paints and surface coatings. Xylenes are commonly found in indoor air of homes and buildings. Occupational exposure to mixed xylenes may occur at workplaces where mixed xylenes are produced and used as industrial solvents.

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<sup>43</sup> Agency for Toxic Substances and Disease Registry (ATSDR). Toxicological Profile for Ethylbenzene. U.S. Public Health Service, U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Atlanta, GA. 2010.

<sup>44</sup> Agency for Toxic Substances and Disease Registry (ATSDR). Toxicological Profile for Xylenes. U.S. Public Health Service, U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Atlanta, GA. 2007.

## Methyl tert butyl ether<sup>45</sup> (1634-04-4)

### *Uses*

Nearly all methyl tert-butyl ether (MTBE) produced in the United States is used as an additive in unleaded gasoline to increase octane levels and reduce carbon monoxide emissions. MTBE was used in New York, until its statewide ban on January 1, 2004. The expanding use of MTBE in gasoline from 1979 to 2004, in conjunction with its physical and chemical properties resulted in significant MTBE impacts to the groundwater resources in the State.<sup>46</sup> MTBE is used in small quantities as a laboratory reagent to extract semi-volatile organic compounds from such sample types as leachates or solid wastes. MTBE is also a pharmaceutical agent, which can be used as an alternative to surgery in dissolving gallstones when injected intraductally.

### *Sources and Potential Exposure*

In New York, the general public may be exposed to MTBE if contamination is present in surface water, groundwater and soil. Because it is no longer used as an automotive fuel in New York, the general population is unlikely to be exposed through auto exhaust or gasoline fumes. Workers may be occupationally exposed via inhalation or dermal contact.

## Methylene chloride<sup>47</sup> (dichloromethane) (75-09-2)

### *Uses*

Methylene chloride is predominantly used as a solvent in paint strippers and removers; as a process solvent in the manufacture of drugs, pharmaceuticals, and film coatings; as a metal cleaning and finishing solvent in electronics manufacturing; and as an agent in urethane foam blowing. Methylene chloride is also used as a propellant in aerosols for products such as paints, automotive products, and insect sprays. Methylene chloride is also approved for use as a postharvest fumigant for grains and strawberries and as a degreening agent for citrus fruit.

### *Sources and Potential Exposure*

The principal route of human exposure to methylene chloride is inhalation of ambient air. Occupational and consumer exposure to methylene chloride in indoor air may be much higher, especially from spray painting or other aerosol uses. People who work in these places can breathe in the chemical or it may come in contact with the skin. Methylene chloride has been detected in both surface water and groundwater samples taken at hazardous waste sites and in drinking water at very low concentrations.

## o-Xylene<sup>48</sup> (95-47-6)

### *Uses*

Xylenes are primarily used in the production of ethylbenzene and as solvents in products such as paints and coatings, and are blended into gasoline.

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<sup>45</sup> Agency for Toxic Substances and Disease Registry (ATSDR). Toxicological Profile for Methyl tert butyl ether. U.S. Public Health Service, U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Atlanta, GA. 1996.

<sup>46</sup> <http://www.dec.ny.gov/chemical/8428.html>

<sup>47</sup> Agency for Toxic Substances and Disease Registry (ATSDR). Toxicological Profile for Methylene chloride. U.S. Public Health Service, U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Atlanta, GA. 2000.

<sup>48</sup> Agency for Toxic Substances and Disease Registry (ATSDR). Toxicological Profile for Xylenes. U.S. Public Health Service, U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Atlanta, GA. 2007.

### ***Sources and Potential Exposure***

Mixed xylenes are distributed throughout the environment; they have been detected in air, rainwater, soils, surface water, sediments, drinking water, and aquatic organisms. Xylenes are released into the atmosphere as fugitive emissions from industrial sources, from auto exhaust, and through volatilization from their use as solvents and from paints and surface coatings. Xylenes are commonly found in indoor air of homes and buildings. Occupational exposure to mixed xylenes may occur at workplaces where mixed xylenes are produced and used as industrial solvents.

## **Styrene<sup>49</sup> (100-42-5)**

### ***Uses***

Styrene is used predominately in the production of polystyrene plastics and resins. In addition, fiberglass products used for boats are also made from polyester resins dissolved in styrene. Styrene is also used as an intermediate in the synthesis of materials used for ion exchange resins and to produce copolymers such as styrene-acrylonitrile (SAN) and acrylonitrilebutadiene-Styrene (ABS), both representing approximately 9% of styrene use, and styrene-butadiene rubber (SBR), representing approximately 6% of styrene use. SBR is used for such products as car tires, hoses used for industrial applications, and shoes. Styrene-butadiene latex is used in making carpet, coatings for paper, and as part of latex paints. SAN and ABS are used for materials such as piping, automotive components, refrigerator liners, plastic drinking glasses, and car battery enclosures. Styrene is used in resins to make boat hulls, and is used to make thermoplastics, glues and adhesives. Styrene copolymers are frequently used in liquid toner for photocopiers and printers. The Food and Drug Administration permits styrene to be used as a direct additive for synthetic flavoring and an indirect additive in polyester resins, ion-exchange membranes, and in food packaging material.

### ***Sources and Potential Exposure***

Occupational exposure to styrene occurs in the reinforced plastics industry and polystyrene factories. The general public is mostly likely exposed to styrene in indoor air attributable to releases from building materials, consumer products, and tobacco smoke.

## **Tetrachloroethylene (perchloroethylene) (127-18-4)**

### ***Uses***

Tetrachloroethylene is used for dry cleaning and textile processing, as a chemical intermediate, and for vapor degreasing in metal-cleaning operations.

### ***Sources and Potential Exposure***

Occupational exposure to tetrachloroethylene may occur, primarily in dry cleaning establishments and at industries manufacturing or using the chemical. The general public may be exposed in residential dwellings which are attached to dry cleaning establishments using tetrachloroethylene. The general public may be exposed if near clothes that have been dry cleaned using tetrachloroethylene. Exposures may occur if showering or bathing in water contaminated with tetrachloroethylene.

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<sup>49</sup> Agency for Toxic Substances and Disease Registry (ATSDR). Toxicological Profile for Styrene. U.S. Public Health Service, U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Atlanta, GA. 2010.

## **Toluene (108-88-3)**

### ***Uses***

The major use of toluene is as a mixture added to gasoline to improve octane ratings. Toluene is also used to produce benzene and as a solvent in paints, coatings, synthetic fragrances, adhesives, inks, and cleaning agents. Toluene is also used in the production of polymers used to make nylon, plastic soda bottles, and polyurethanes and for pharmaceuticals, dyes, cosmetic nail products, and the synthesis of organic chemicals. Toluene is also used as a starting material in the synthesis of trinitrotoluene.

### ***Sources and Potential Exposure***

The highest concentrations of toluene usually occur in indoor air from the use of common household products (paints, paint thinners, adhesives, synthetic fragrances and nail polish) and cigarette smoke. Toluene exposure may also occur in the workplace, especially in occupations such as printing or painting, where toluene is frequently used as a solvent. Automobile emissions are the principal source of toluene to the ambient air. Toluene may also be released to the ambient air during the production, use, and disposal of industrial and consumer products that contain toluene.

## **trans1,3-Dichloropropene (542-75-6)**

### ***Uses***

1,3-Dichloropropene is the predominant component of several formulations used in agriculture as soil fumigants for parasitic nematodes.

### ***Sources and Potential Exposure***

Workers may be occupationally exposed to 1,3-dichloropropene, dermally or by inhalation, during its manufacture, formulation, or application as a soil fumigant. The general public may be exposed via inhalation near source areas or from the consumption of contaminated drinking water from wells near some hazardous waste sites.

## **Trichloroethylene (79-01-6)**

### ***Uses***

The main use of trichloroethylene is in the vapor degreasing of metal parts. Trichloroethylene is also used as an extraction solvent for greases, oils, fats, waxes, and tars, a chemical intermediate in the production of other chemicals, and as a refrigerant. Trichloroethylene is used in consumer products such as typewriter correction fluids, paint removers/strippers, adhesives, spot removers, and rug-cleaning fluids.

### ***Sources and Potential Exposure***

Because of its moderate water solubility, trichloroethylene in soil has the potential to migrate into groundwater. The relatively frequent detection of trichloroethylene in groundwater confirms its mobility in soils. Drinking water supplies relying on contaminated groundwater sources may contain trichloroethylene. The Agency for Toxic Substance and Disease Registry reports that trichloroethylene is the most frequently reported organic contaminant in groundwater. Workers may be exposed to trichloroethylene where it is manufactured or used. In addition, the general public may be exposed to trichloroethylene if released from facilities where it is manufactured or

used. Persons may also be exposed to trichloroethylene through the use of products containing the chemical and from evaporation and leaching from waste disposal sites.

## **Trichlorofluoromethane<sup>50</sup> (75-69-4)**

### *Uses*

Historical use has been as a refrigerant, polyurethane foam, and degreasing agent. Fully halogenated chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs) such as trichlorofluoromethane were scheduled for production phase-out in 1987 by the Montreal Protocol. Although originally scheduled for 50% production phase-out by the year 2000 in developed countries, the worsening ozone depletion has forced acceleration of the CFC phase-out.

### *Sources and Potential Exposure*

Due to its long atmospheric residence time, the general population may be exposed to trichlorofluoromethane via inhalation of ambient air, ingestion of drinking water, and dermal contact with this chemical and other consumer products containing trichlorofluoromethane. Trichlorofluoromethane has been identified in emissions from volcanoes.

## **Trichlorotrifluoroethane<sup>51</sup> (76-13-1)**

### *Uses*

Historical use has been as a dry-cleaning solvent, fire extinguishers, to make chlorotrifluoroethylene, blowing agent, polymer intermediate, solvent drying, drying electronic parts and precision equipment. Fully halogenated chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs) such as trichlorotrifluoroethane were scheduled for production phase-out in 1987 by the Montreal Protocol. Although originally scheduled for 50% production phase-out by the year 2000 in developed countries, the worsening ozone depletion has forced acceleration of the CFC phase-out.

### *Sources and Potential Exposure*

Due to its long atmospheric residence time, the general population may be exposed to trichlorotrifluoroethane via inhalation of ambient air, ingestion of drinking water, and dermal contact with this chemical and other consumer products containing trichlorotrifluoroethane.

## **Vinyl chloride (75-01-4)**

### *Uses*

Most of the vinyl chloride produced in the United States is used to make polyvinyl chloride (PVC), a material used to manufacture a variety of plastic and vinyl products including pipes, wire and cable coatings, and packaging materials. Smaller amounts of vinyl chloride are used in furniture and automobile upholstery, wall coverings, house wares, and automotive parts.

### *Sources and Potential Exposure*

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<sup>50</sup> U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. Hazardous Substances Data Bank (HSDB, online database). National Toxicology Information Program, National Library of Medicine, Bethesda, MD

<sup>51</sup> U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. Hazardous Substances Data Bank (HSDB, online database). National Toxicology Information Program, National Library of Medicine, Bethesda, MD

Air inside new cars may contain vinyl chloride at higher levels than detected in ambient air because vinyl chloride may be released into the air from the new plastic parts. Drinking water may contain low levels of vinyl chloride released from contact with polyvinyl pipes. Vinyl chloride is a microbial degradation product of trichloroethylene in groundwater, and thus can be found in groundwater affected by trichloroethylene contamination. Occupational exposure to vinyl chloride may occur in those workers concerned with the production, use, transport, storage, and disposal of the chemical.

# **Appendix C – Comparison to DEC’s Ambient Monitoring Network for 2011**

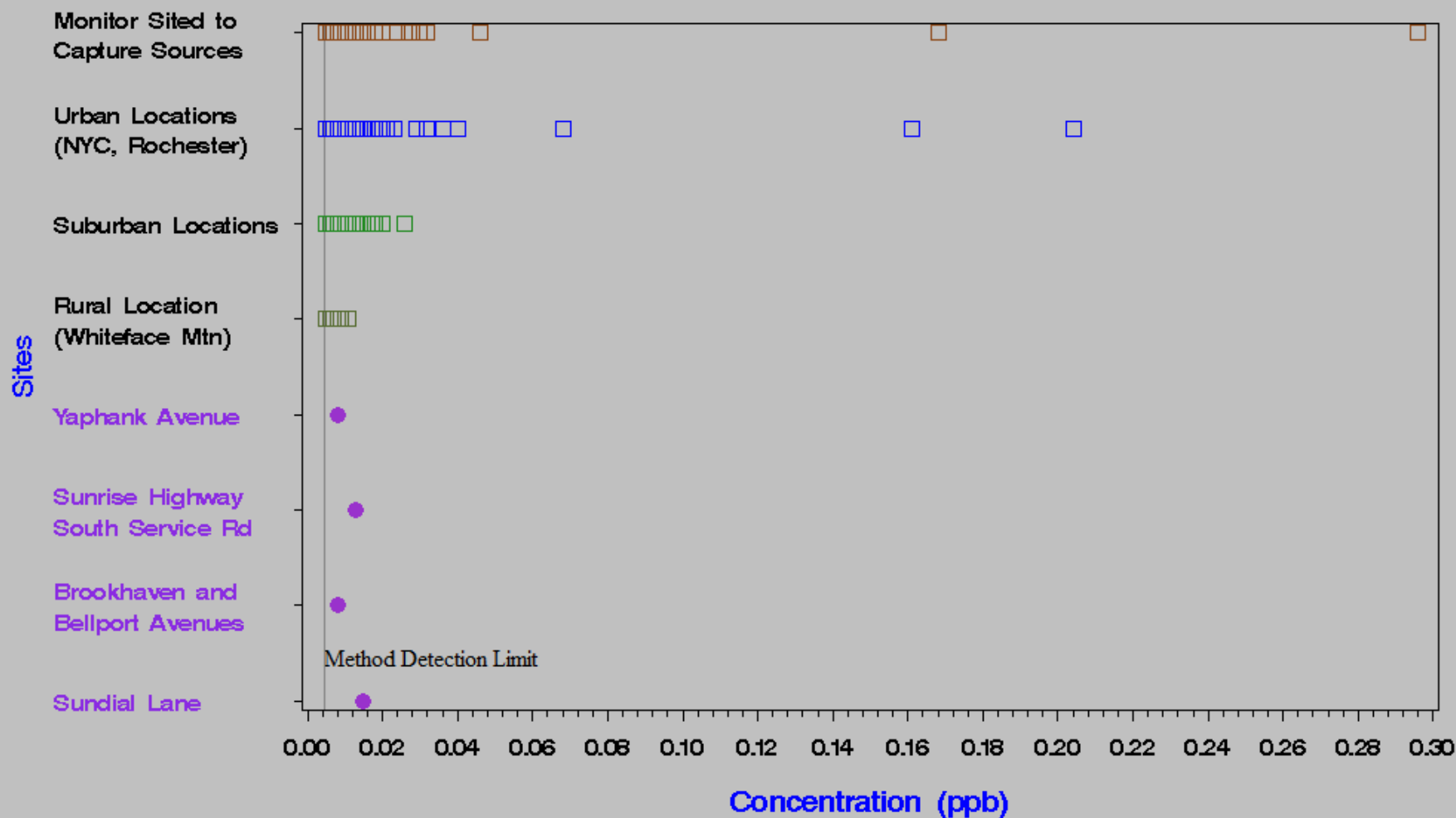
The graphs in this appendix display comparisons between different sampling periods of time, 1-hour samples in the CAS program and 24-hour monitoring concentrations from DEC’s network. Comparisons with different sampling periods are not routinely conducted. We offer this comparison only to show that many of the air toxics found in this program are frequently detected at other locations in the state. Additionally, these comparisons provide a qualitative perspective for the CAS results in reference to the results in the monitoring network.

## **Method Detection Limit**

Results below the “lowest reliable measured level” (called the method detection limit), which varies by pollutant and by monitoring method, have been displayed for comparison purposes only. Although there is less reliability in those measurements reported below the “lowest reliable measured level,” USEPA's Science Advisory Board (Pilot City Air Toxics Measurements Summary, Office of Air Quality Planning and Standards, EPA454/R-01-003, February 2001) has stated that these values may be recognized as measurable results. For the Community Air Screen Program, results below the lowest reliable measured level will be noted but not be used to determine follow-up activities.

## 1,1,1-Trichloroethane

Comparison — Brookhaven Community Groups CAS 1-hour Sampling with  
DEC 2011 Toxics Network 24-hour Sampling



Classification



Community Air Screen



Suburban



Rural



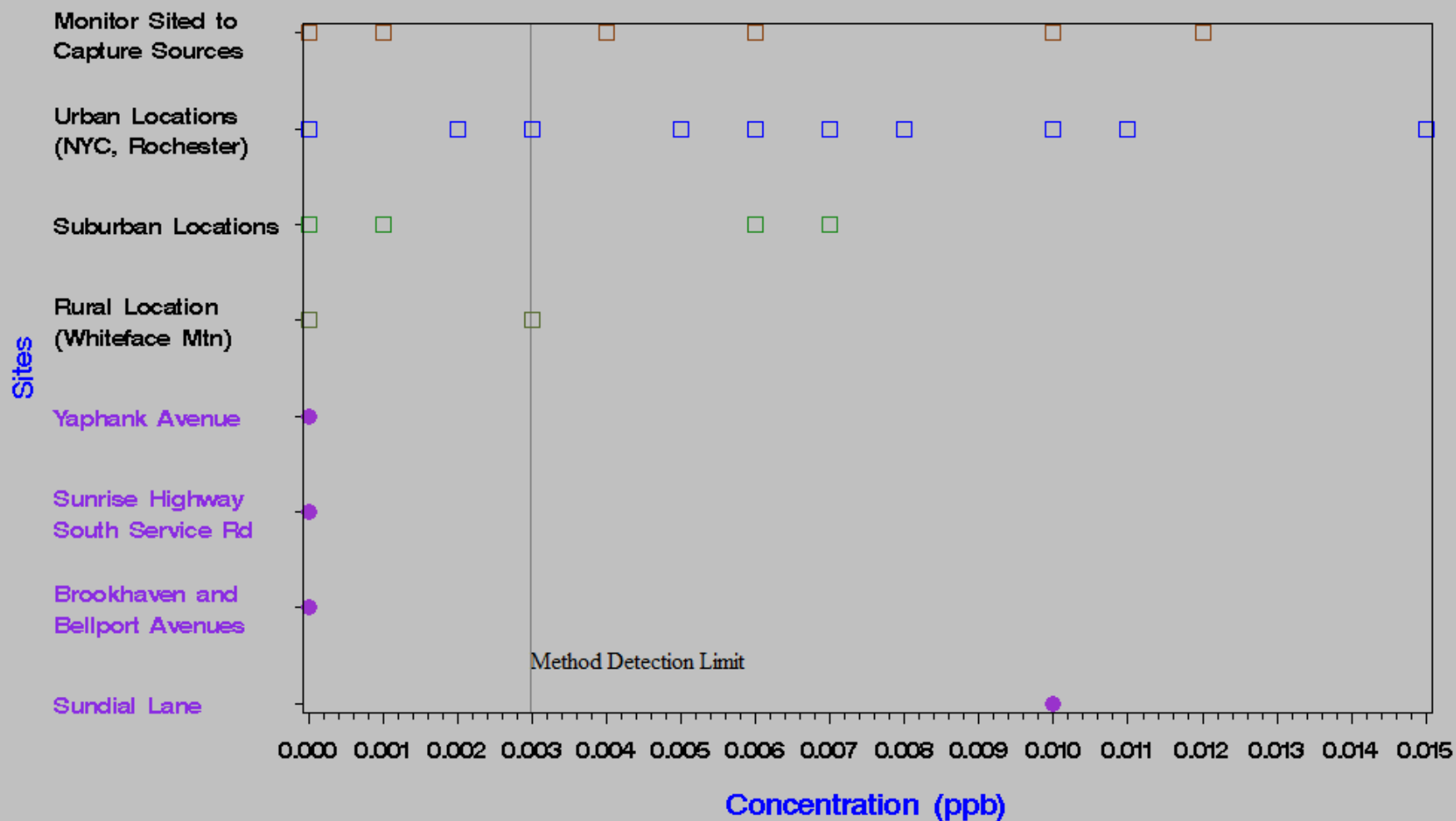
Urban



Source

# 1,1,2,2-Tetrachloroethane

Comparison — Brookhaven Community Groups CAS 1-hour Sampling with  
DEC 2011 Toxics Network 24-hour Sampling



Classification



Community Air Screen



Suburban



Rural



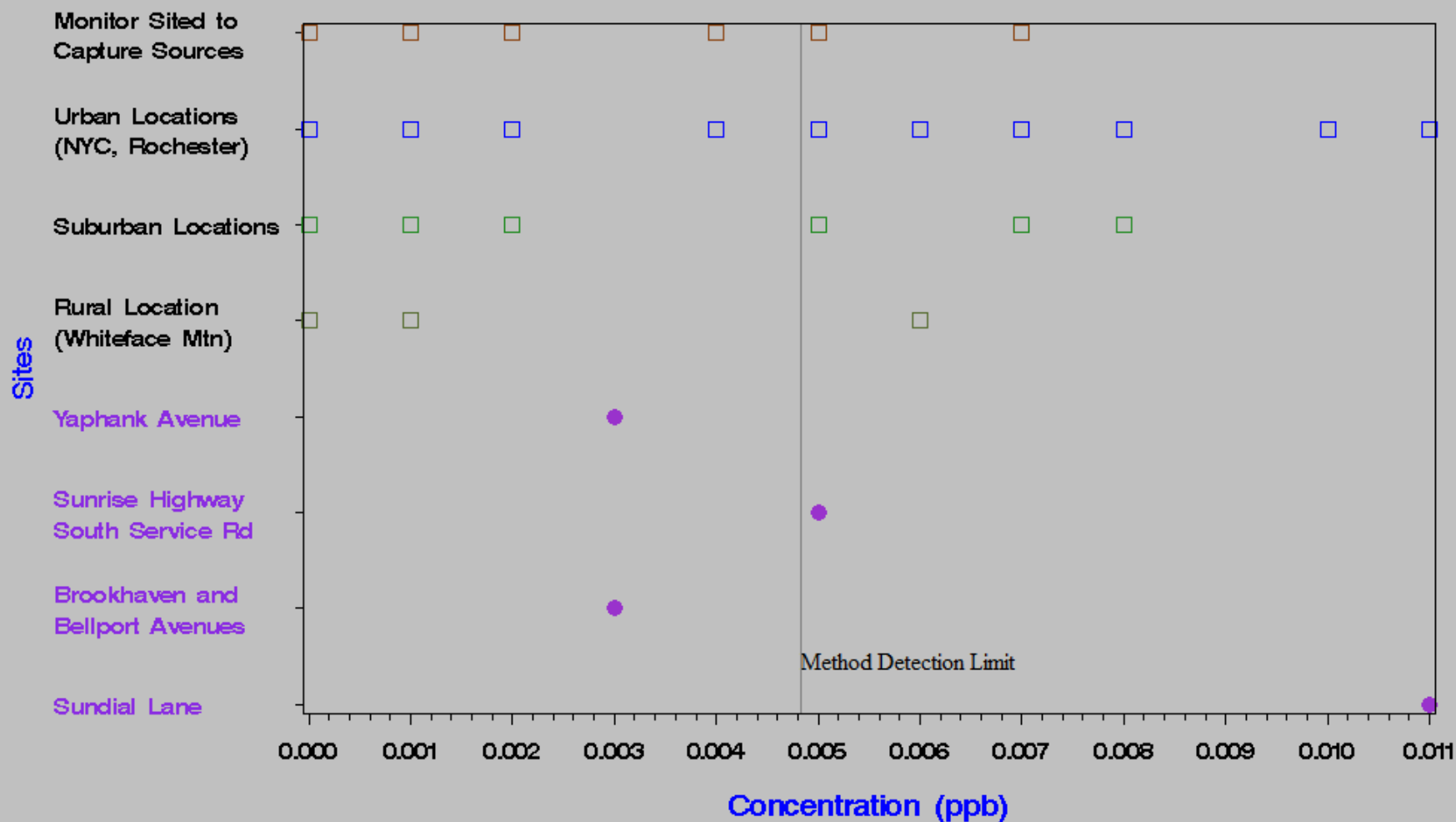
Urban



Source

# 1,1-Dichloroethane

Comparison — Brookhaven Community Groups CAS 1-hour Sampling with  
DEC 2011 Toxics Network 24-hour Sampling



Classification

• • •

Community Air Screen

□ □ □

Rural

□ □ □

Source

□ □ □

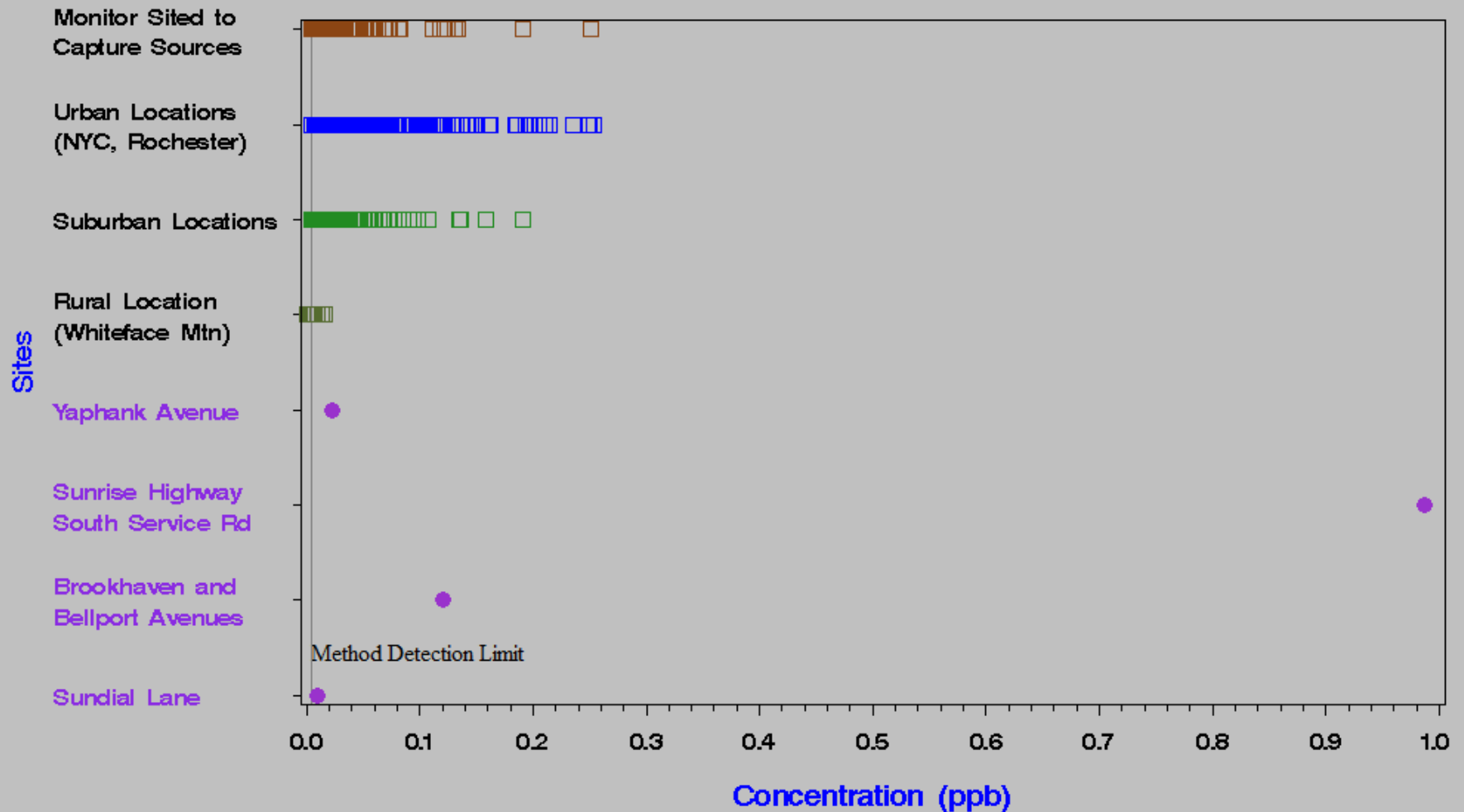
Suburban

□ □ □

Urban

## 1,2,4-Trimethylbenzene

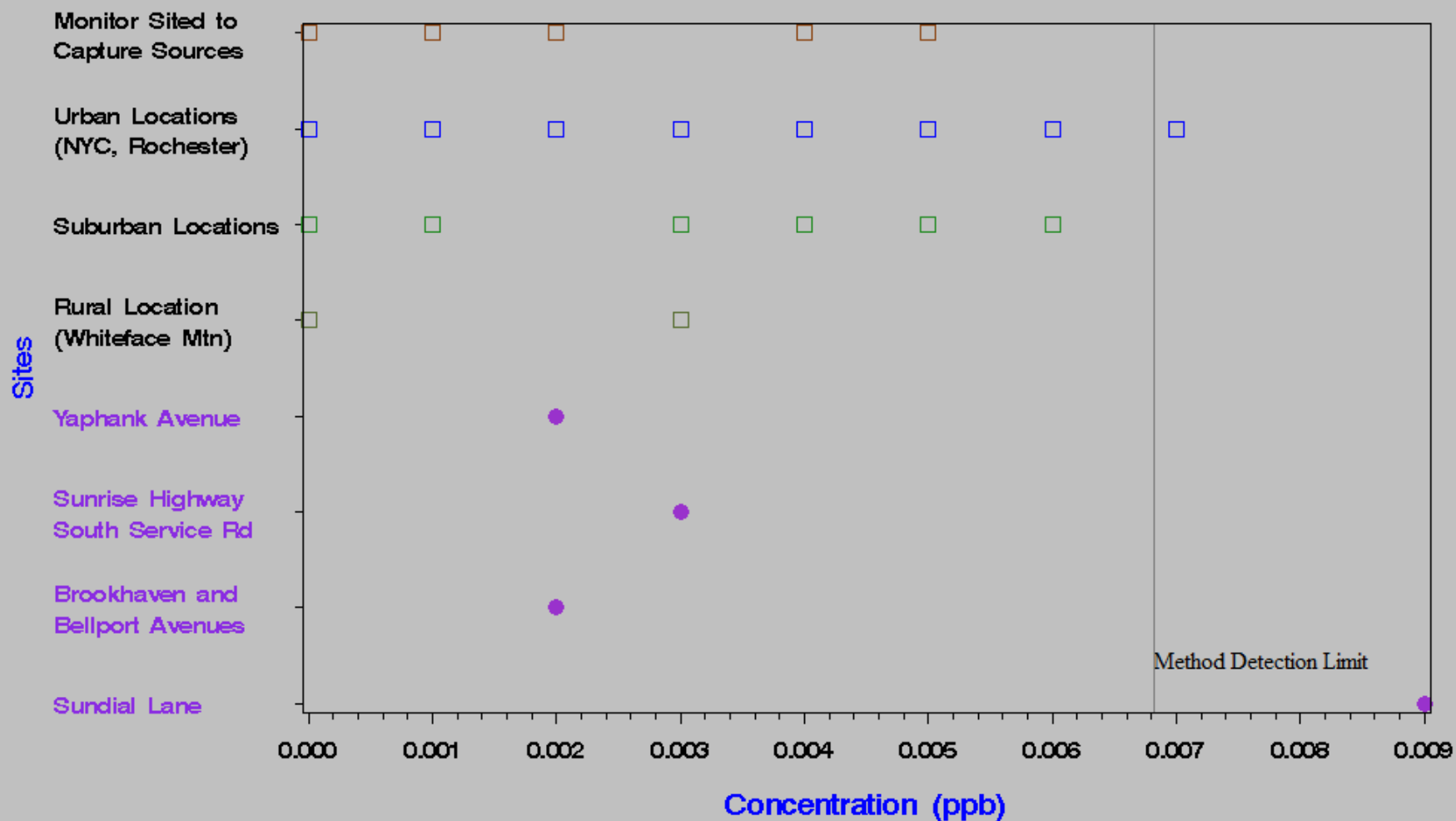
Comparison — Brookhaven Community Groups CAS 1-hour Sampling with  
DEC 2011 Toxics Network 24-hour Sampling



|                |                            |             |              |
|----------------|----------------------------|-------------|--------------|
| Classification | ● ● ● Community Air Screen | □ □ □ Rural | □ □ □ Source |
|                | □ □ □ Suburban             | □ □ □ Urban |              |

## 1,2-Dibromoethane

Comparison — Brookhaven Community Groups CAS 1-hour Sampling with  
DEC 2011 Toxics Network 24-hour Sampling



Classification

• • •

Community Air Screen

□ □ □

Rural

□ □ □

Source

□ □ □

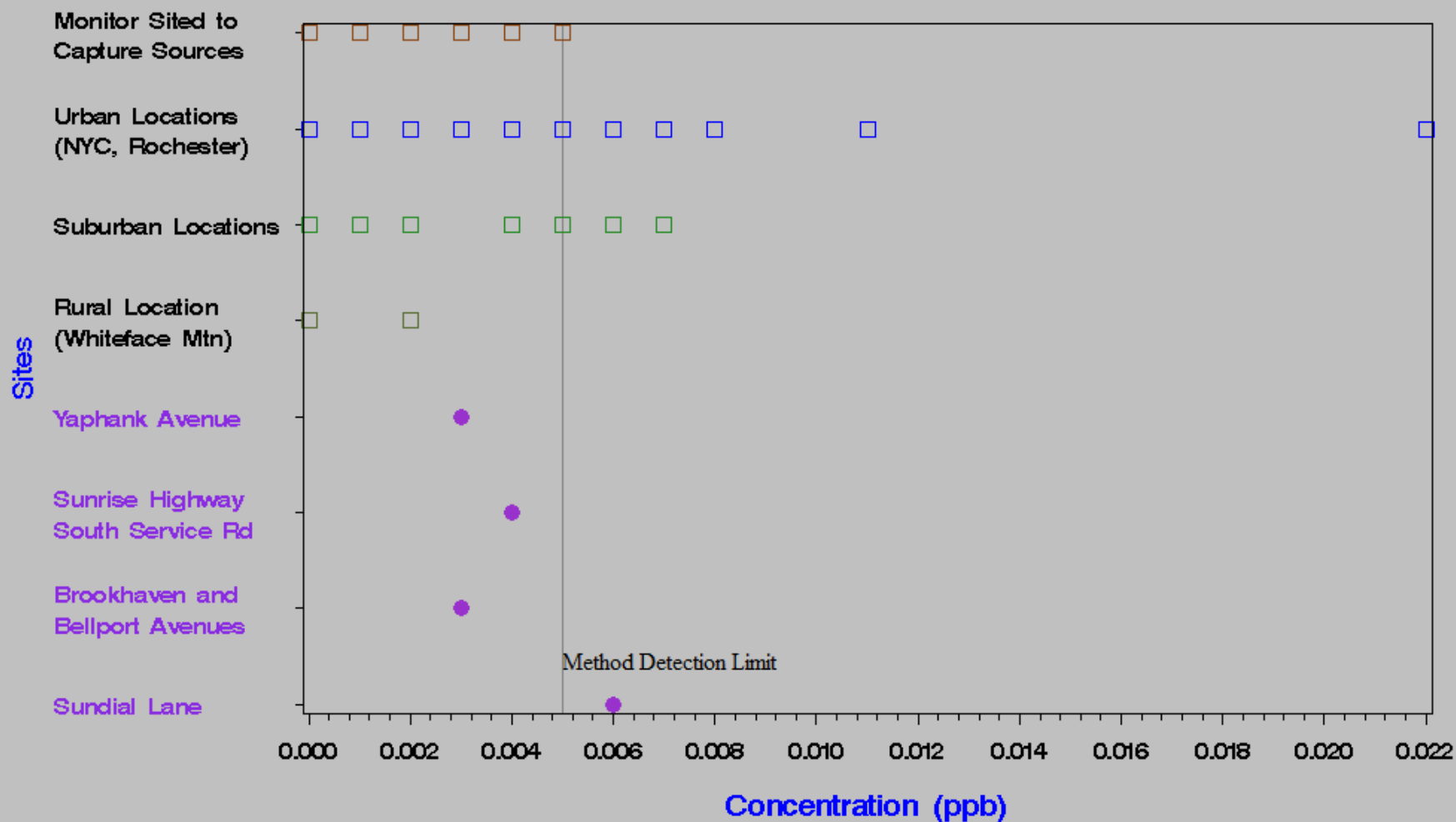
Suburban

□ □ □

Urban

## 1,2-Dichlorobenzene

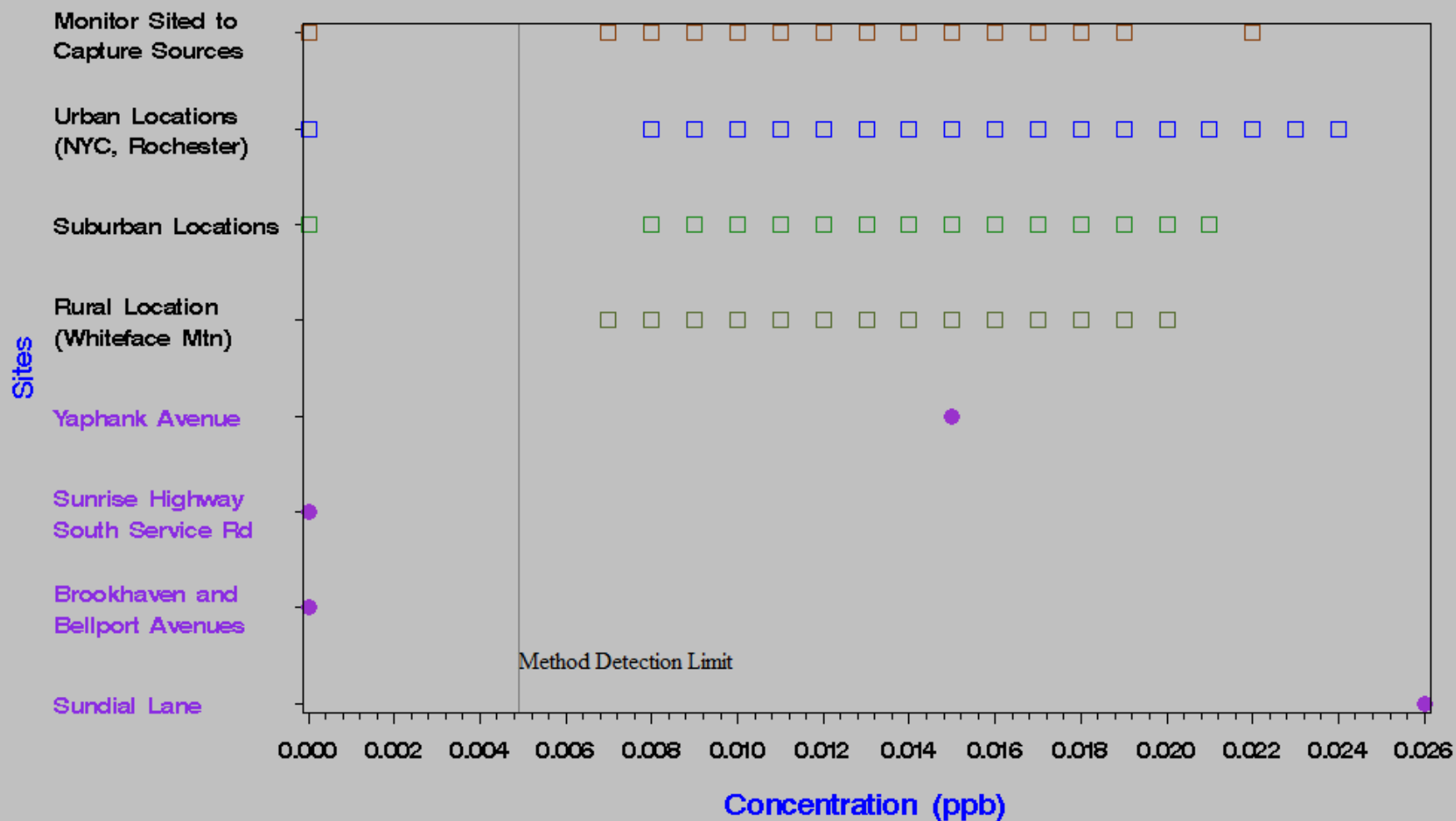
Comparison — Brookhaven Community Groups CAS 1-hour Sampling with  
DEC 2011 Toxics Network 24-hour Sampling



|                |                            |             |              |
|----------------|----------------------------|-------------|--------------|
| Classification | • • • Community Air Screen | □ □ □ Rural | □ □ □ Source |
|                | □ □ □ Suburban             | □ □ □ Urban |              |

## 1,2-Dichloroethane

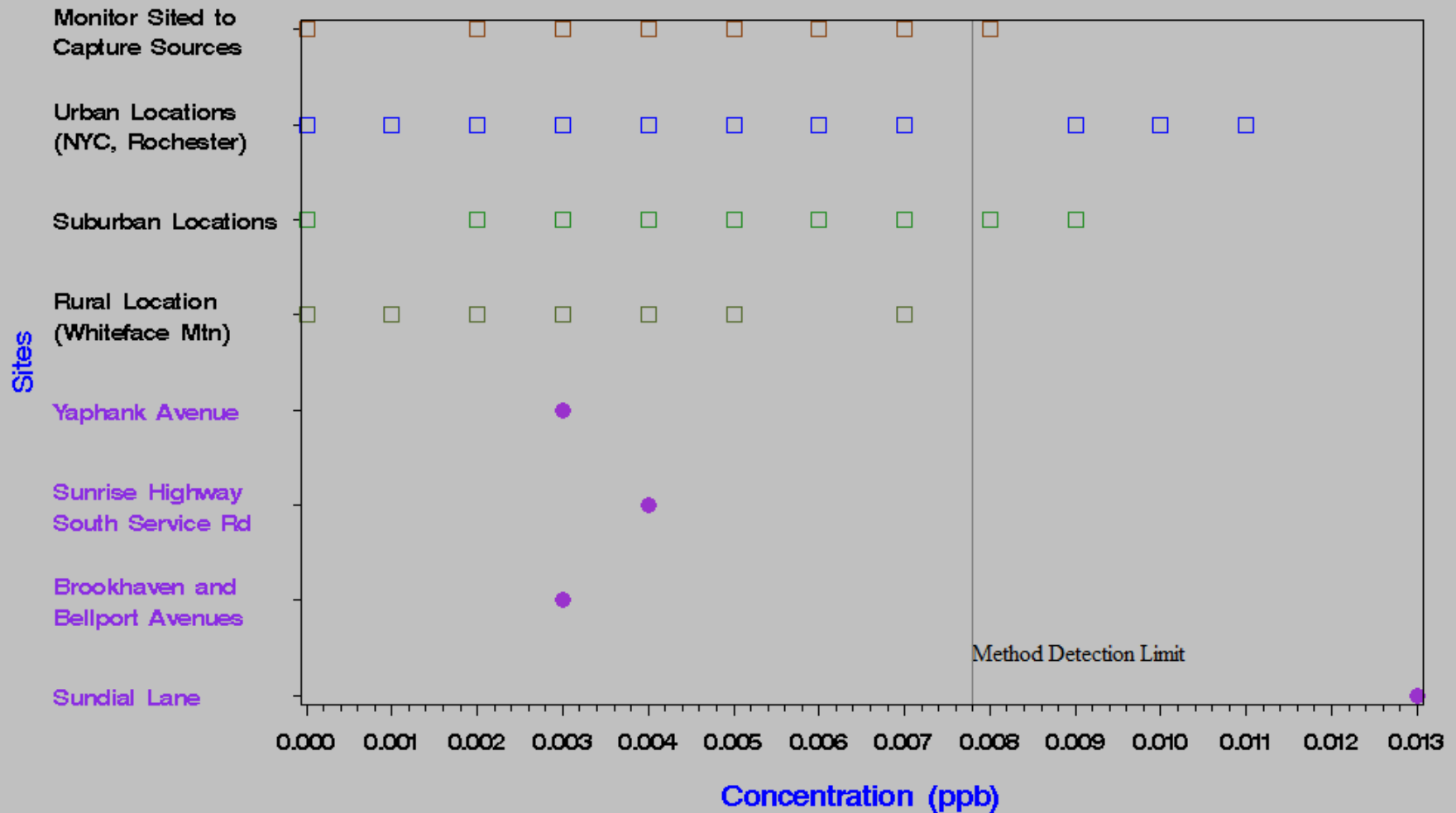
**Comparison — Brookhaven Community Groups CAS 1-hour Sampling with  
DEC 2011 Toxics Network 24-hour Sampling**



|                       |                            |             |              |
|-----------------------|----------------------------|-------------|--------------|
| <b>Classification</b> | • • • Community Air Screen | □ □ □ Rural | □ □ □ Source |
|                       | □ □ □ Suburban             | □ □ □ Urban |              |

## 1,2-Dichloropropane

Comparison — Brookhaven Community Groups CAS 1-hour Sampling with  
DEC 2011 Toxics Network 24-hour Sampling



Classification



Community Air Screen



Rural



Urban

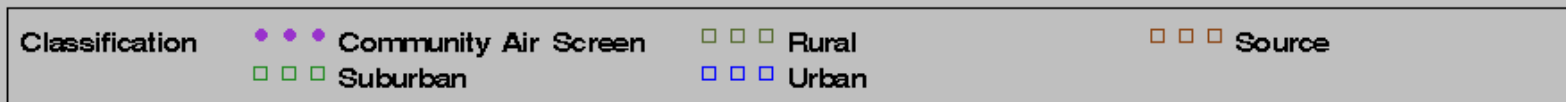


Suburban

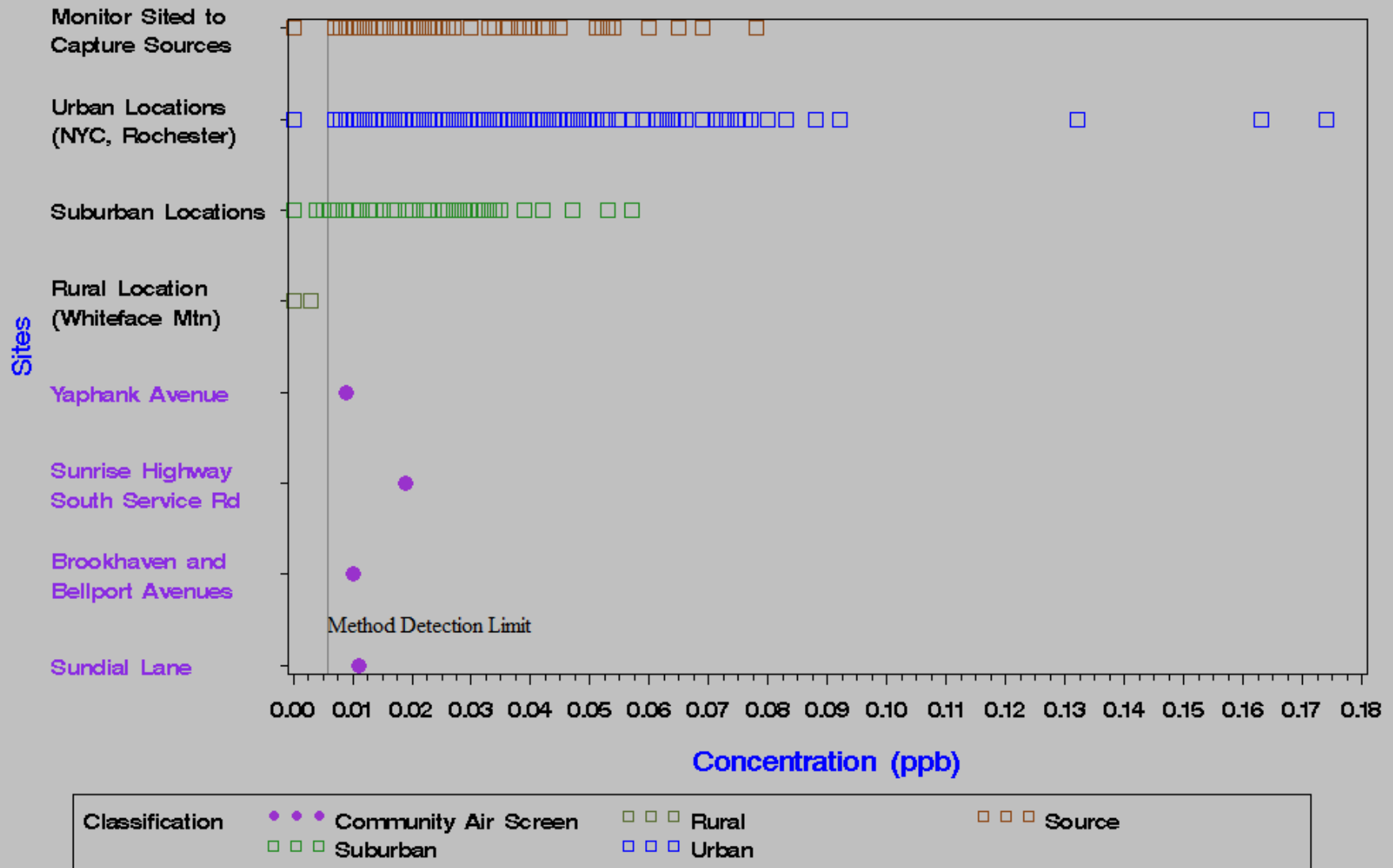


Source

**Comparison – Brookhaven Community Groups CAS 1–hour Sampling with  
DEC 2011 Toxics Network 24–hour Sampling**

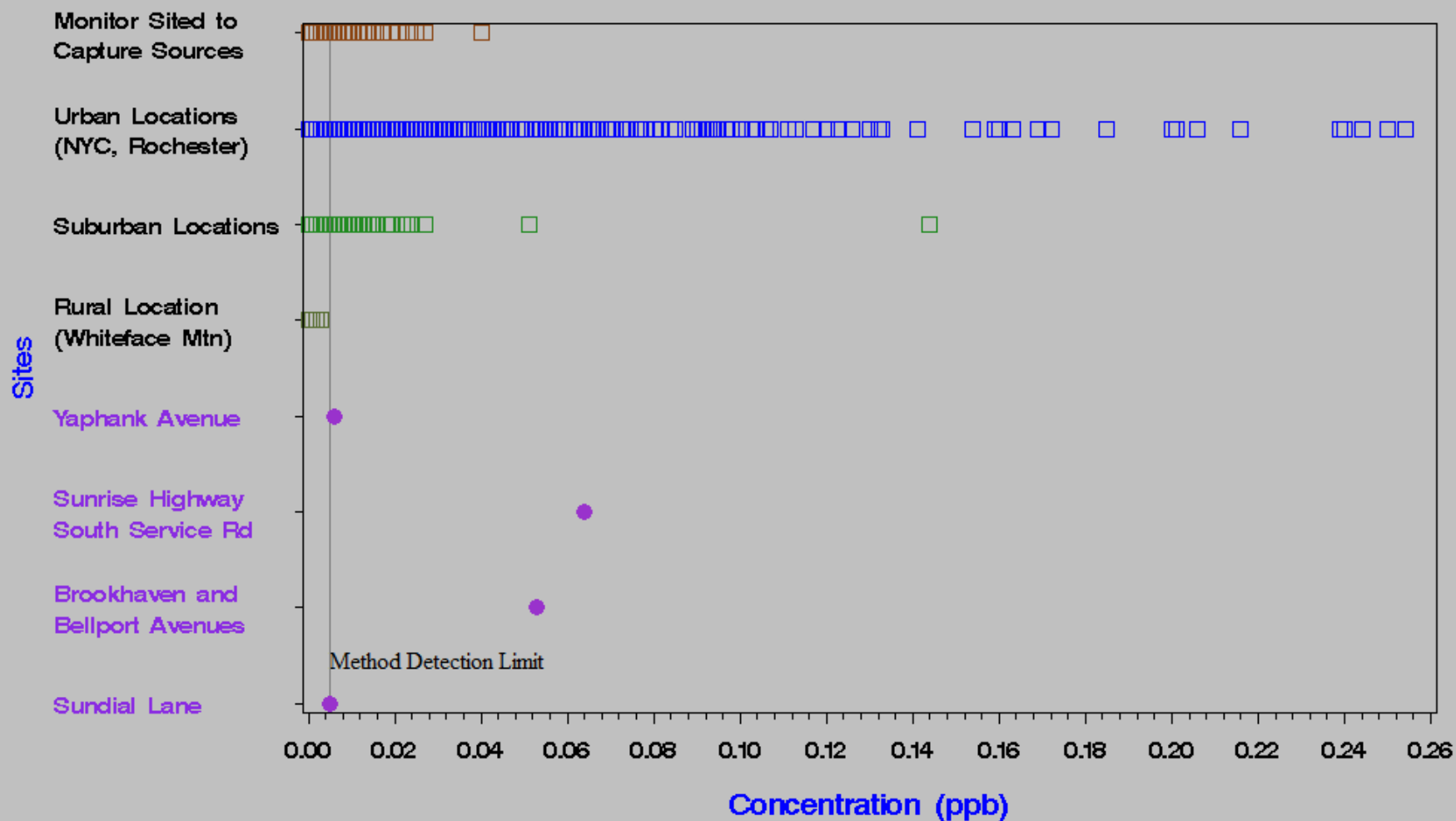


**Comparison – Brookhaven Community Groups CAS 1–hour Sampling with  
DEC 2011 Toxics Network 24–hour Sampling**



# 1,4-Dichlorobenzene

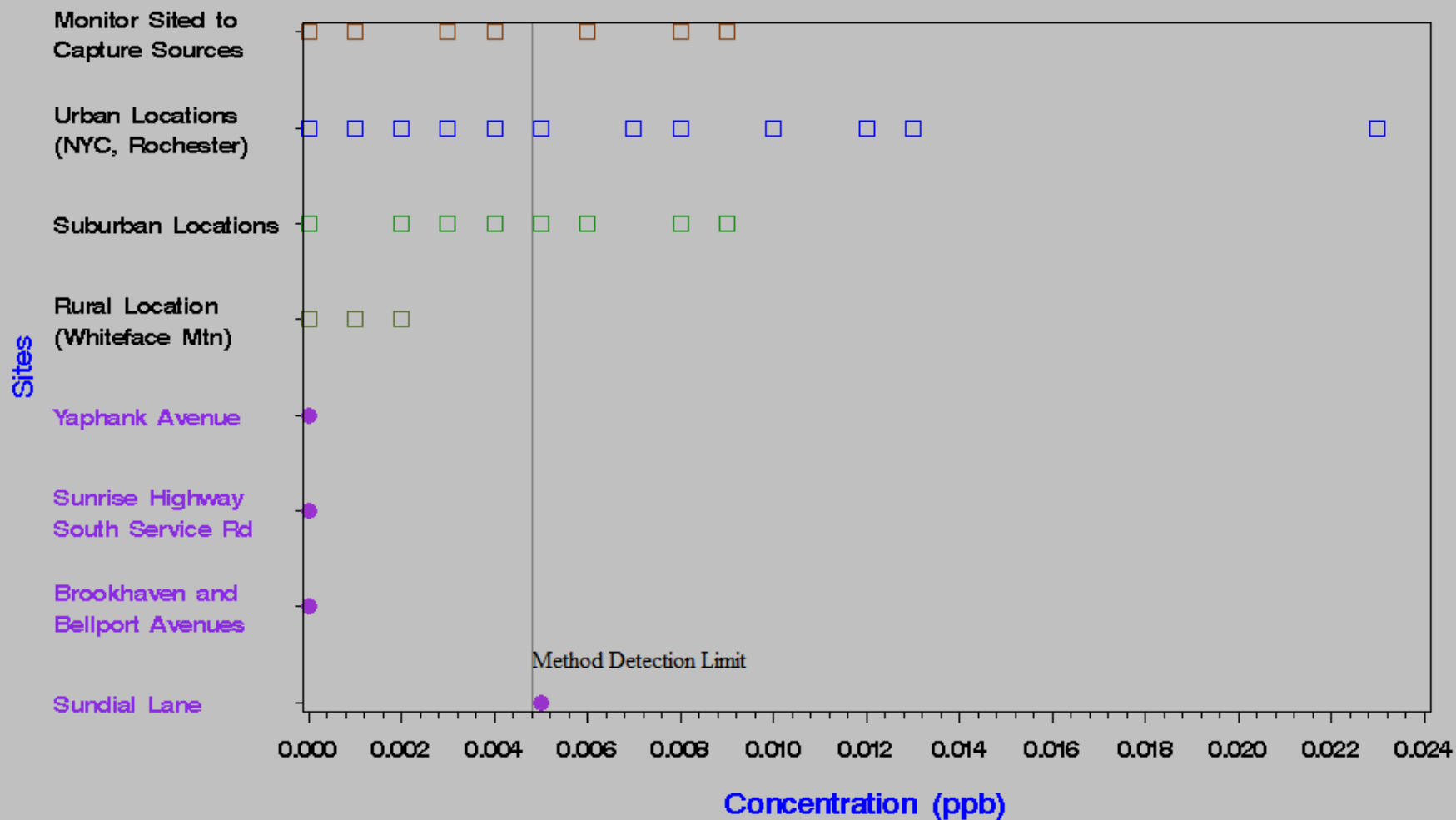
Comparison — Brookhaven Community Groups CAS 1-hour Sampling with  
DEC 2011 Toxics Network 24-hour Sampling



|                       |                            |             |              |
|-----------------------|----------------------------|-------------|--------------|
| <b>Classification</b> | ● ● ● Community Air Screen | □ □ □ Rural | □ □ □ Source |
|                       | □ □ □ Suburban             | □ □ □ Urban |              |

## aChlorotoluene

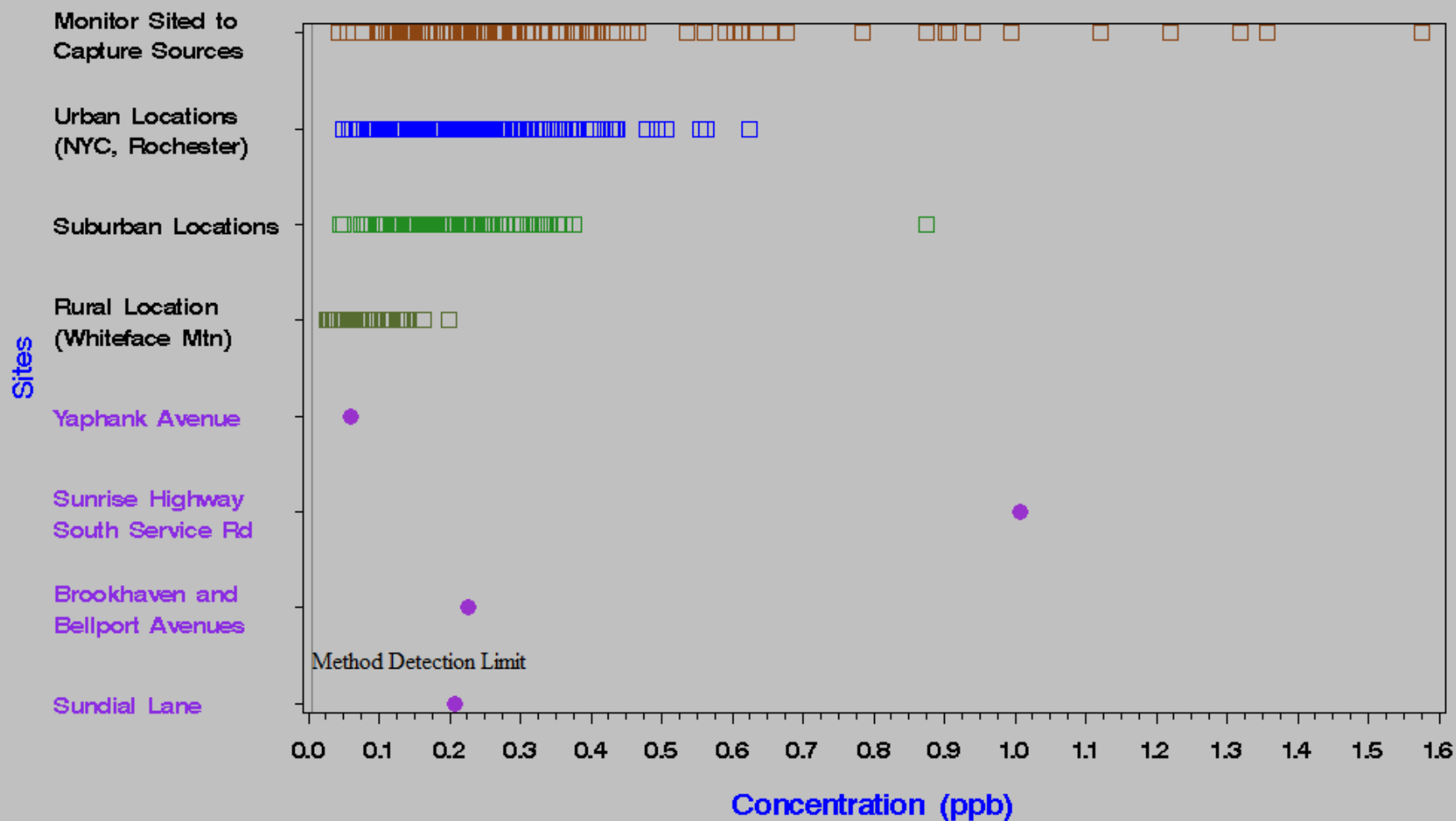
**Comparison — Brookhaven Community Groups CAS 1—hour Sampling with  
DEC 2011 Toxics Network 24—hour Sampling**



|                |                            |             |              |
|----------------|----------------------------|-------------|--------------|
| Classification | • • • Community Air Screen | □ □ □ Rural | □ □ □ Source |
|                | □ □ □ Suburban             | □ □ □ Urban |              |

## Benzene

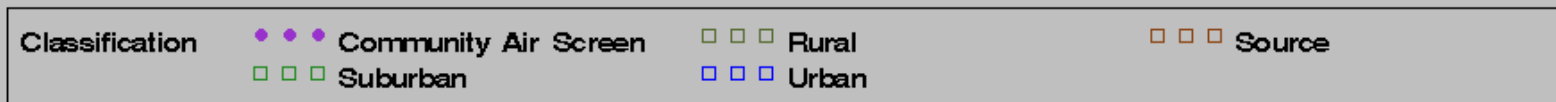
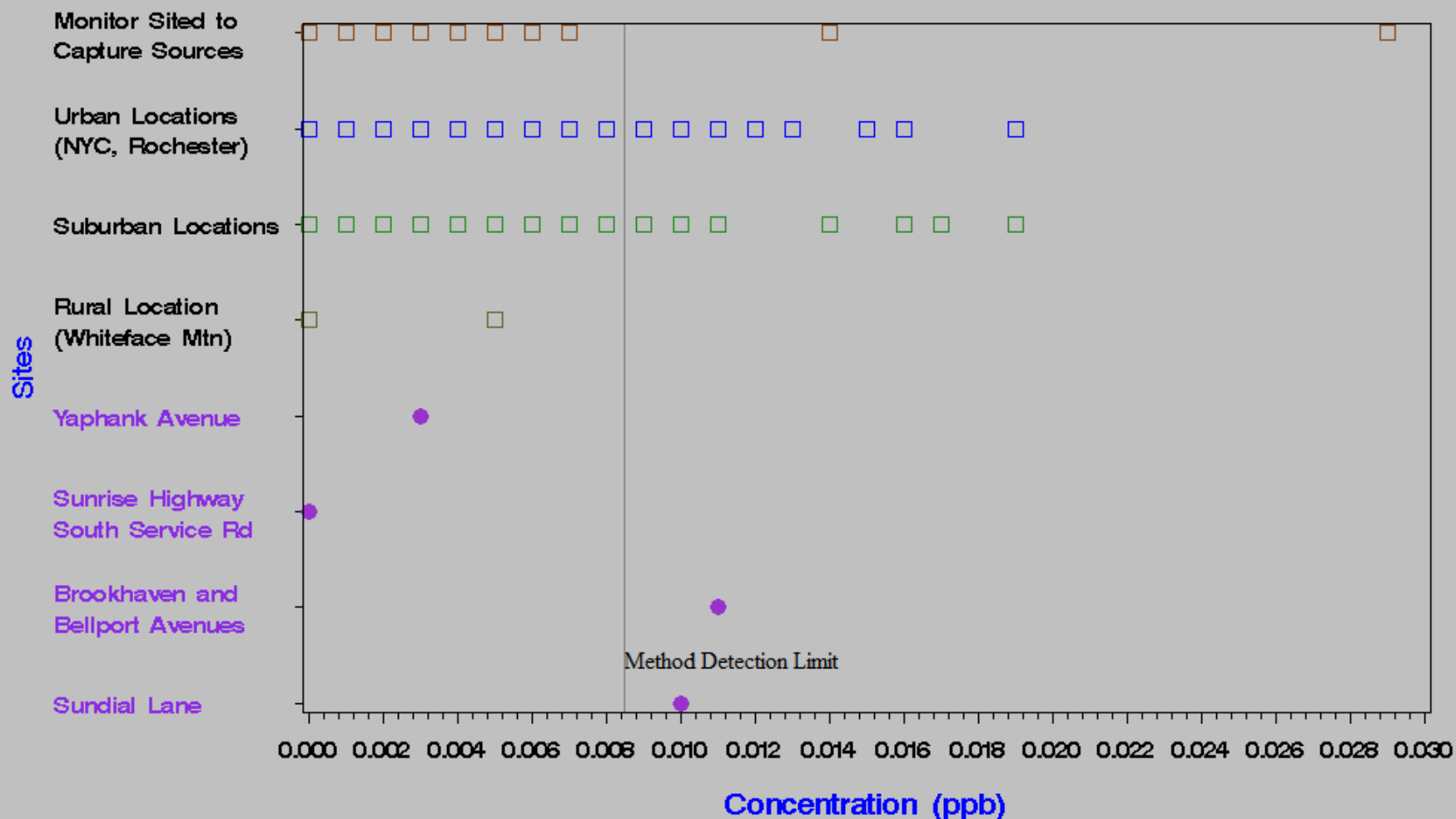
**Comparison — Brookhaven Community Groups CAS 1—hour Sampling with  
DEC 2011 Toxics Network 24—hour Sampling**



|                       |                            |             |              |
|-----------------------|----------------------------|-------------|--------------|
| <b>Classification</b> | ● ● ● Community Air Screen | □ □ □ Rural | □ □ □ Source |
|                       | □ □ □ Suburban             | □ □ □ Urban |              |

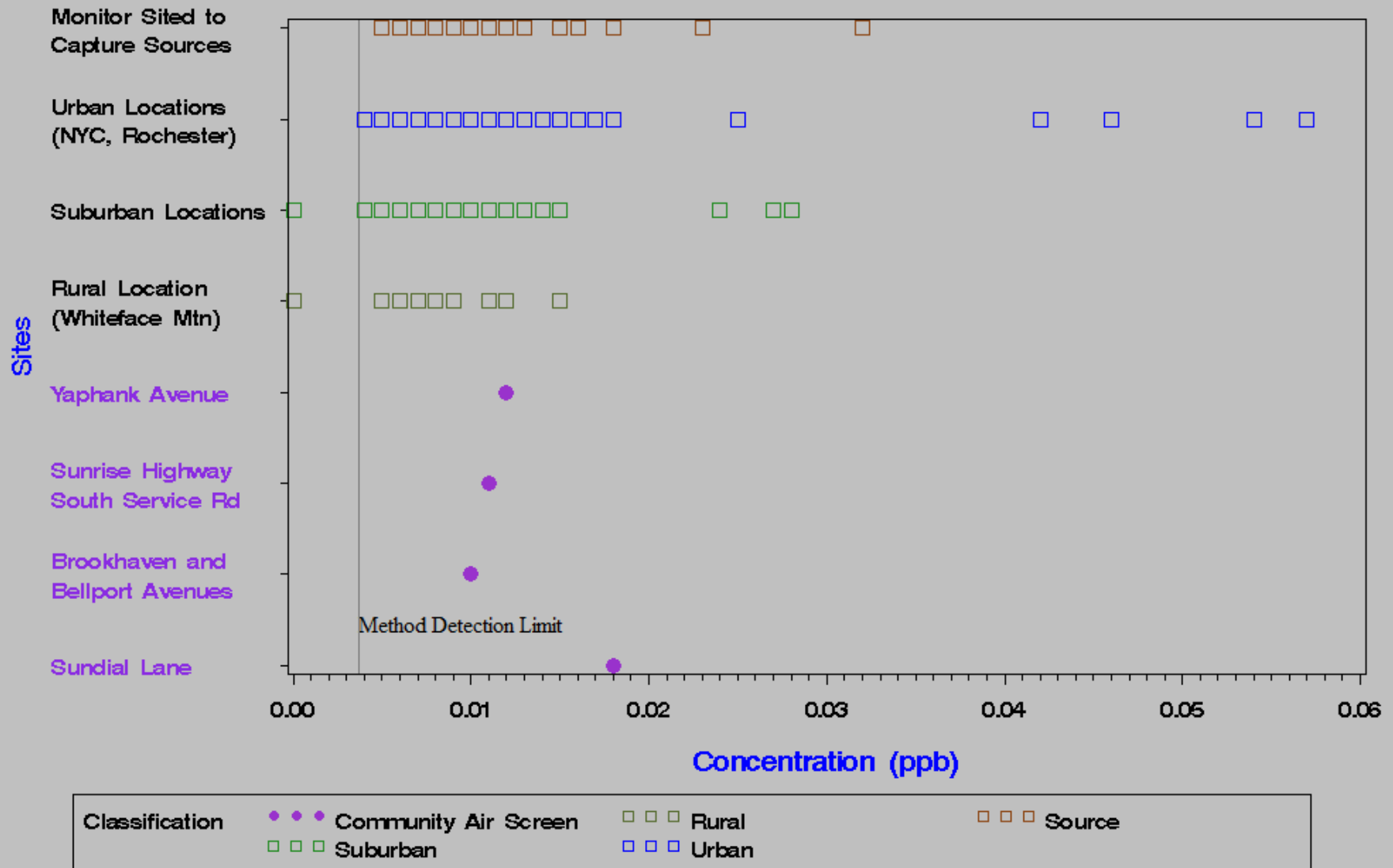
## Bromodichloromethane

Comparison — Brookhaven Community Groups CAS 1—hour Sampling with  
DEC 2011 Toxics Network 24—hour Sampling



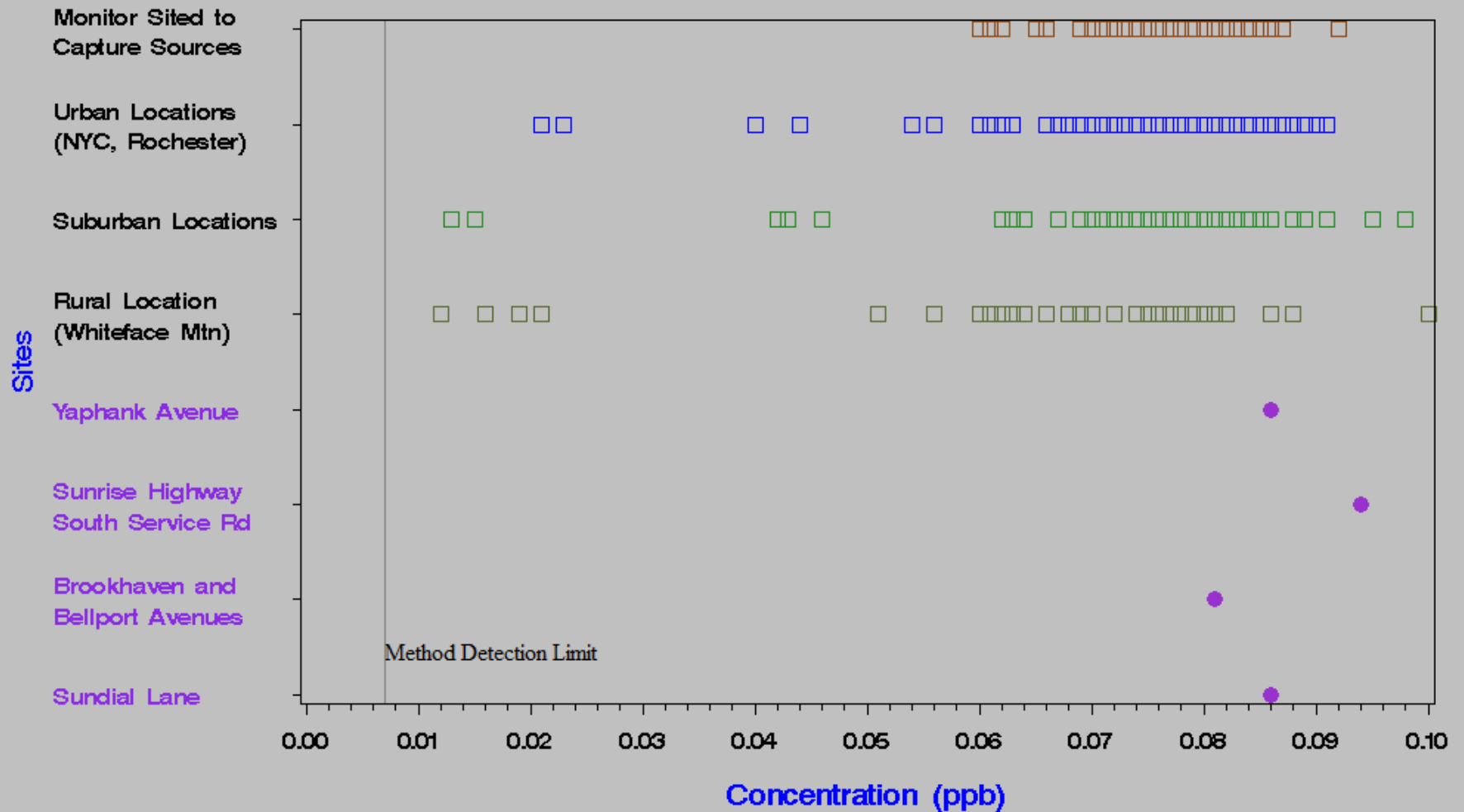
## Bromomethane

**Comparison — Brookhaven Community Groups CAS 1—hour Sampling with  
DEC 2011 Toxics Network 24—hour Sampling**



## Carbon Tetrachloride

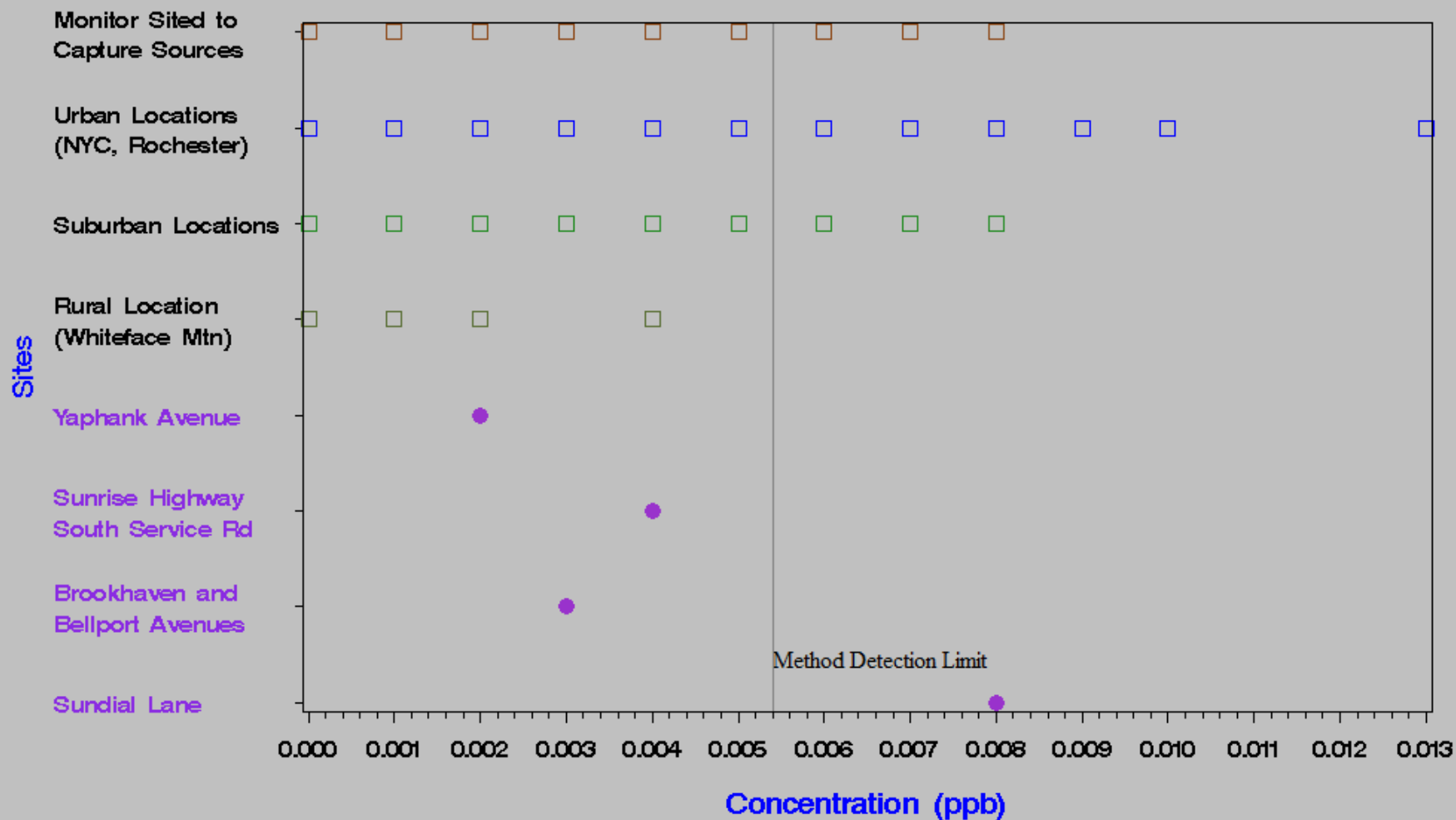
**Comparison — Brookhaven Community Groups CAS 1—hour Sampling with  
DEC 2011 Toxics Network 24—hour Sampling**



|                |       |                      |       |       |       |        |
|----------------|-------|----------------------|-------|-------|-------|--------|
| Classification | ● ● ● | Community Air Screen | □ □ □ | Rural | □ □ □ | Source |
|                | □ □ □ | Suburban             | □ □ □ | Urban |       |        |

## Chlorobenzene

**Comparison — Brookhaven Community Groups CAS 1—hour Sampling with  
DEC 2011 Toxics Network 24—hour Sampling**



Classification



Community Air Screen



Rural



Urban

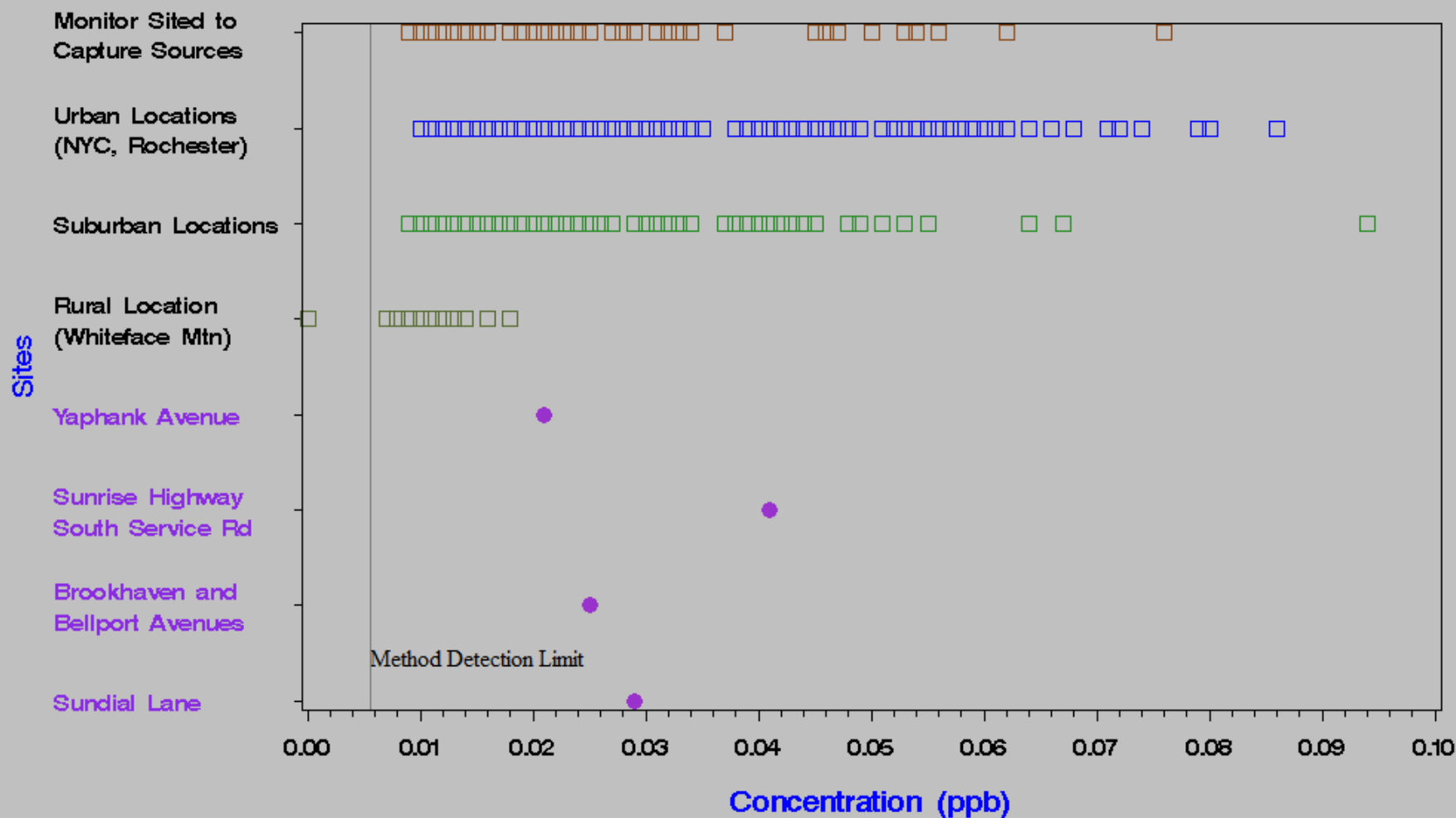


Source

Suburban

## Chloroform

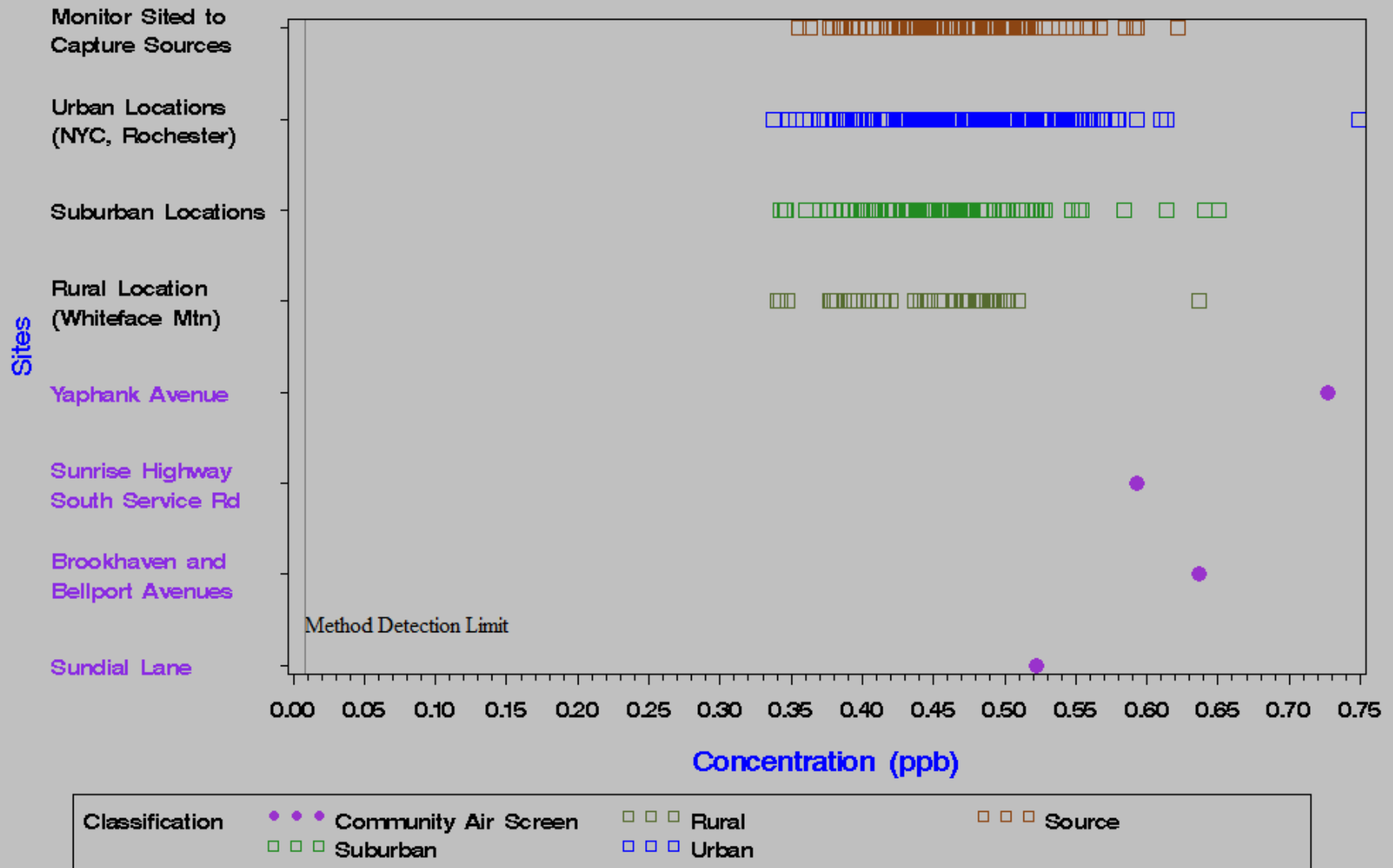
**Comparison — Brookhaven Community Groups CAS 1—hour Sampling with  
DEC 2011 Toxics Network 24—hour Sampling**



|                |                            |             |              |
|----------------|----------------------------|-------------|--------------|
| Classification | ● ● ● Community Air Screen | □ □ □ Rural | □ □ □ Source |
|                | □ □ □ Suburban             | □ □ □ Urban |              |

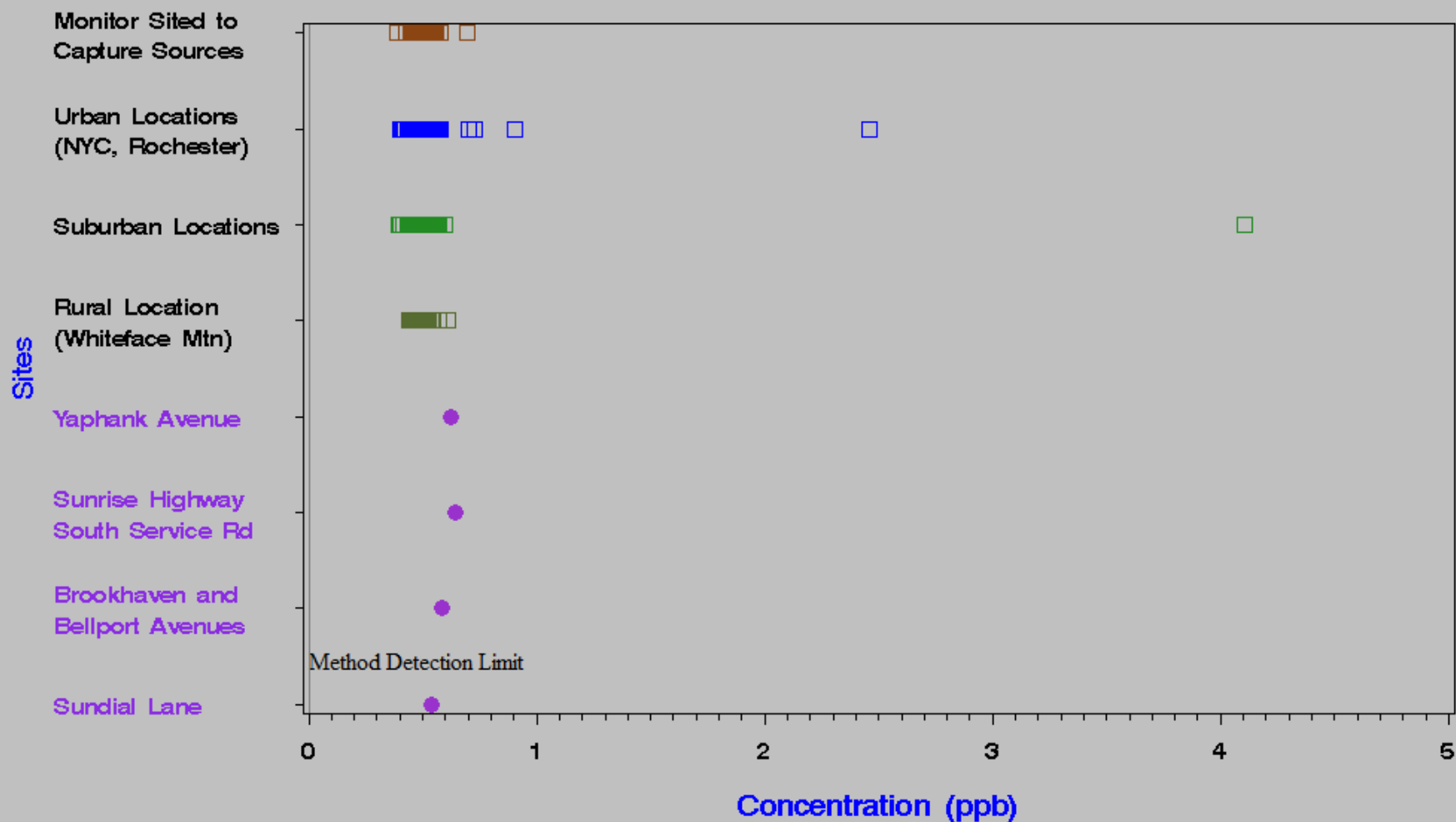
## Chloromethane

Comparison — Brookhaven Community Groups CAS 1-hour Sampling with  
DEC 2011 Toxics Network 24-hour Sampling



## Dichlorodifluoromethane

Comparison — Brookhaven Community Groups CAS 1-hour Sampling with  
DEC 2011 Toxics Network 24-hour Sampling



Classification



Community Air Screen



Rural



Source



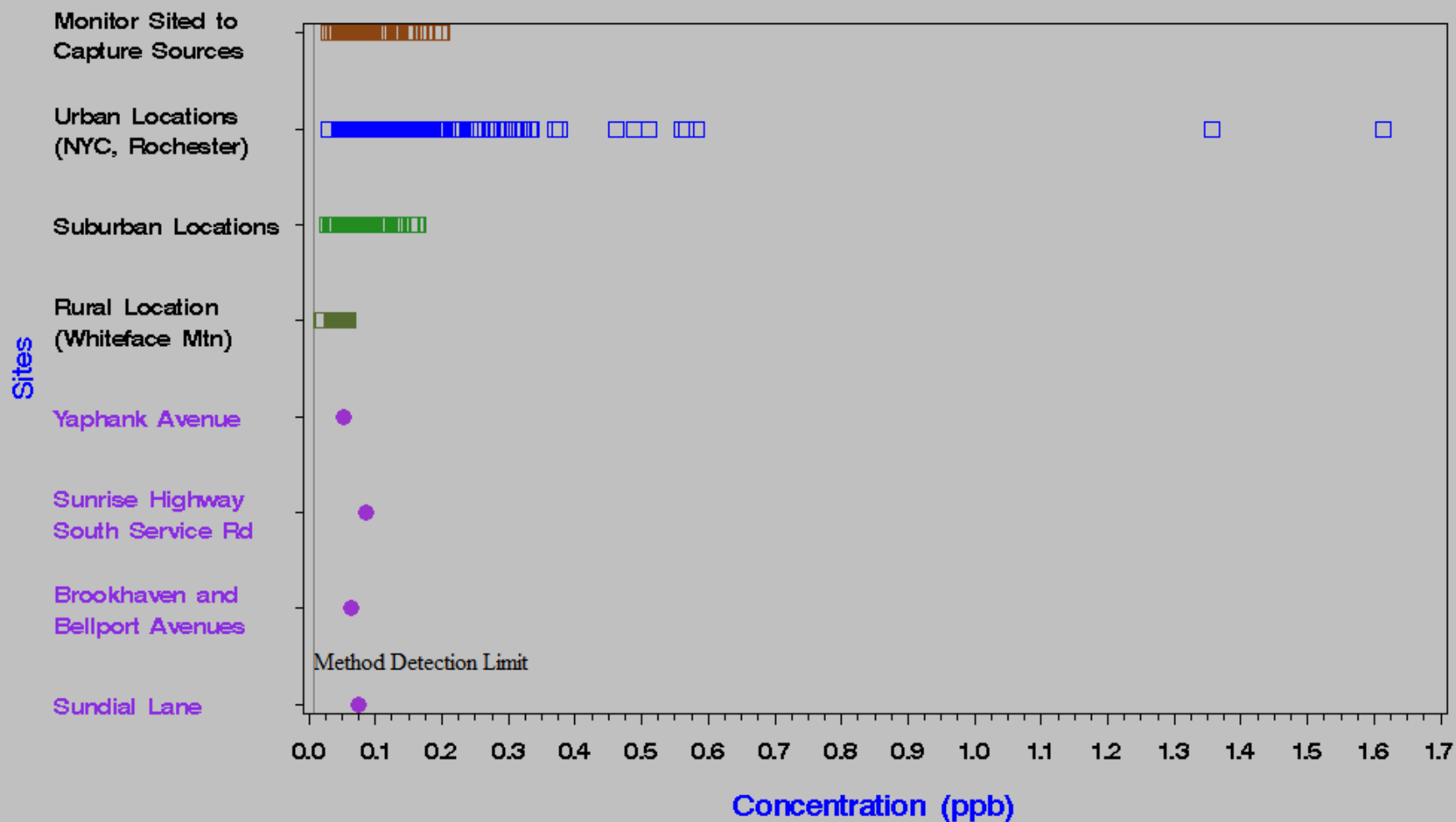
Suburban



Urban

## Dichloromethane

Comparison — Brookhaven Community Groups CAS 1-hour Sampling with  
DEC 2011 Toxics Network 24-hour Sampling



Classification



Community Air Screen



Suburban



Rural



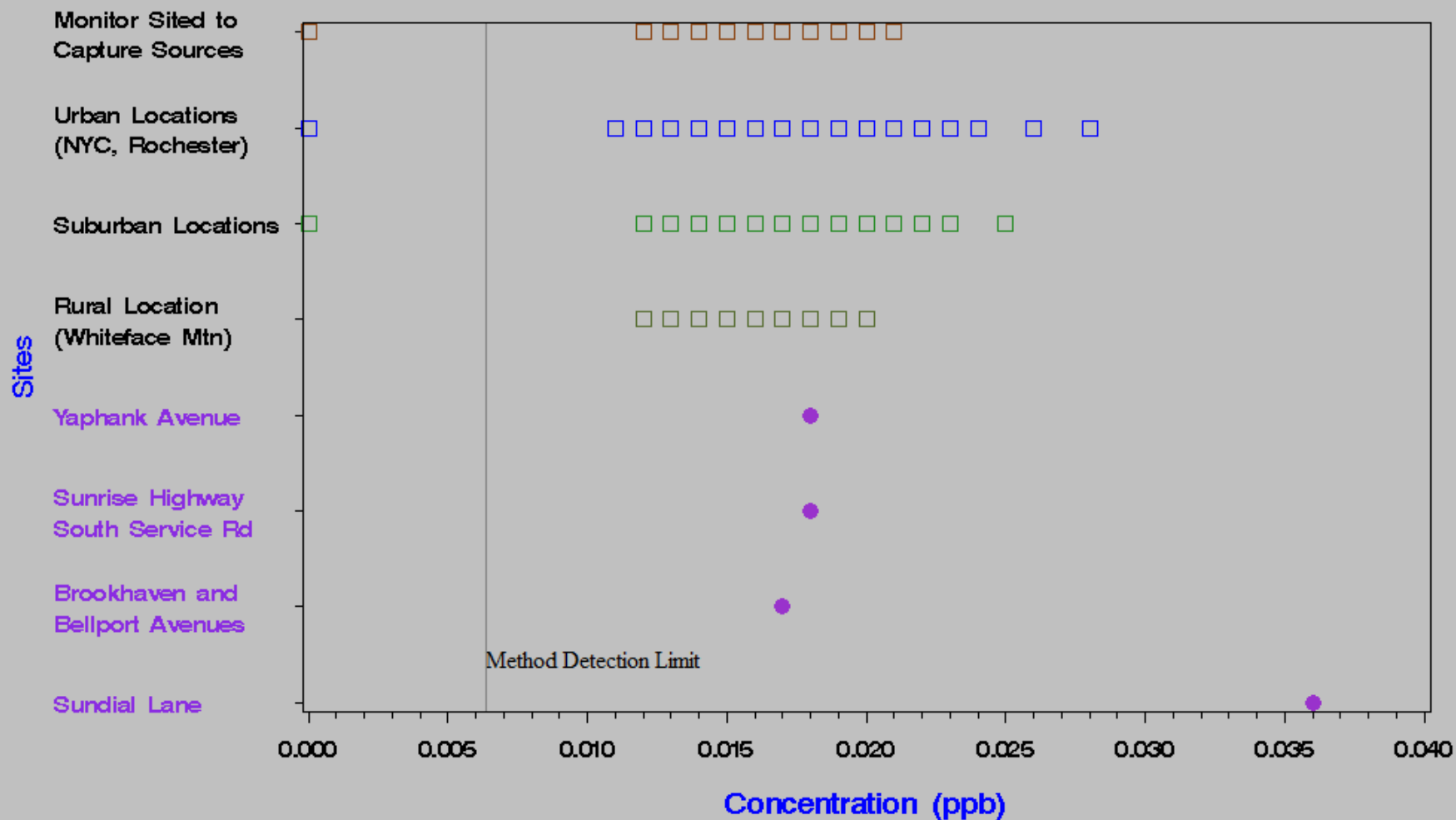
Urban



Source

## Dichlorotetrafluoroethane

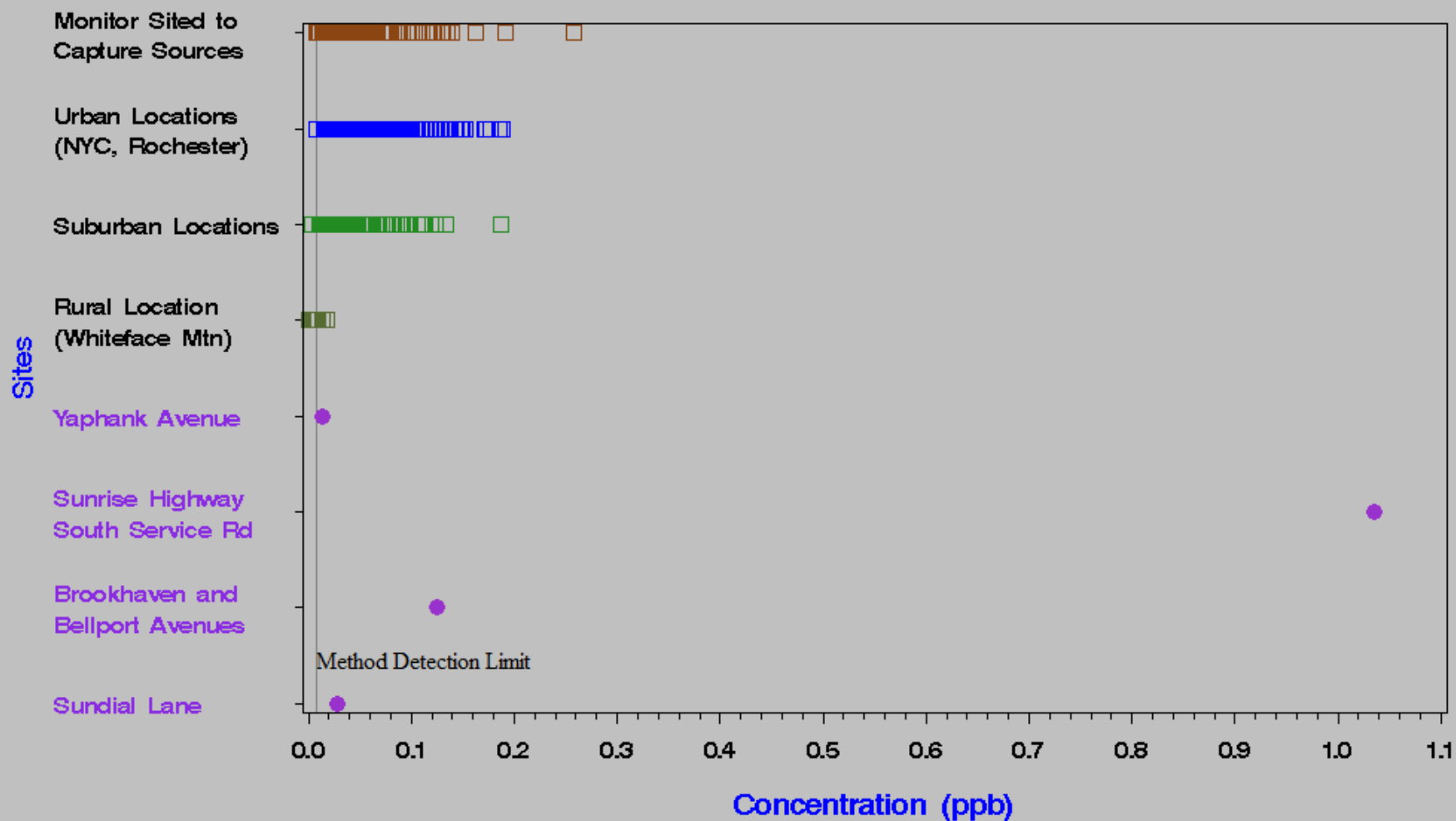
Comparison — Brookhaven Community Groups CAS 1—hour Sampling with  
DEC 2011 Toxics Network 24—hour Sampling



|                |                            |             |              |
|----------------|----------------------------|-------------|--------------|
| Classification | • • • Community Air Screen | □ □ □ Rural | □ □ □ Source |
|                | □ □ □ Suburban             | □ □ □ Urban |              |

## Ethylbenzene

Comparison — Brookhaven Community Groups CAS 1—hour Sampling with  
DEC 2011 Toxics Network 24—hour Sampling



Classification

• • •

Community Air Screen

□ □ □

Rural

□ □ □

Source

□ □ □

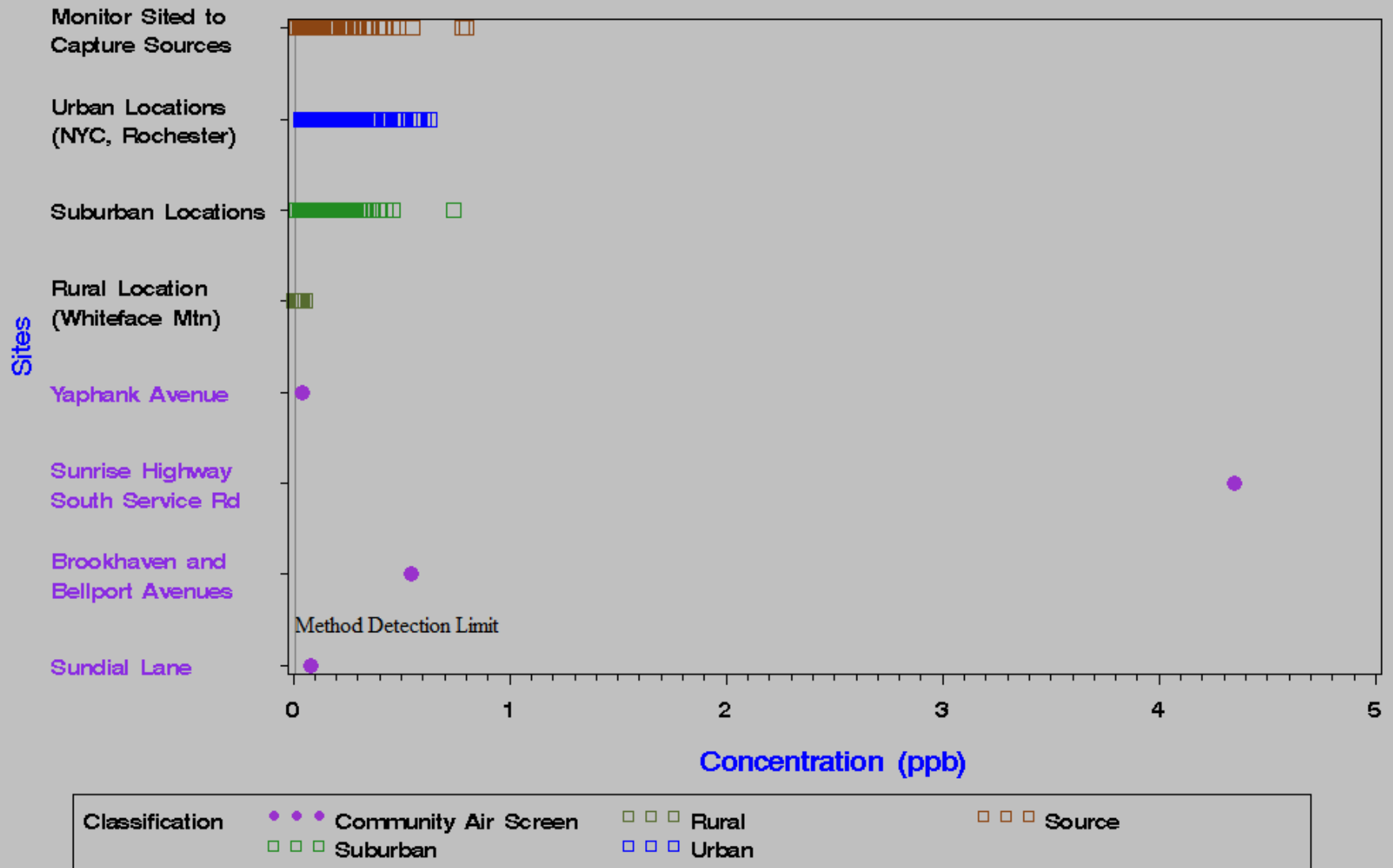
Suburban

□ □ □

Urban

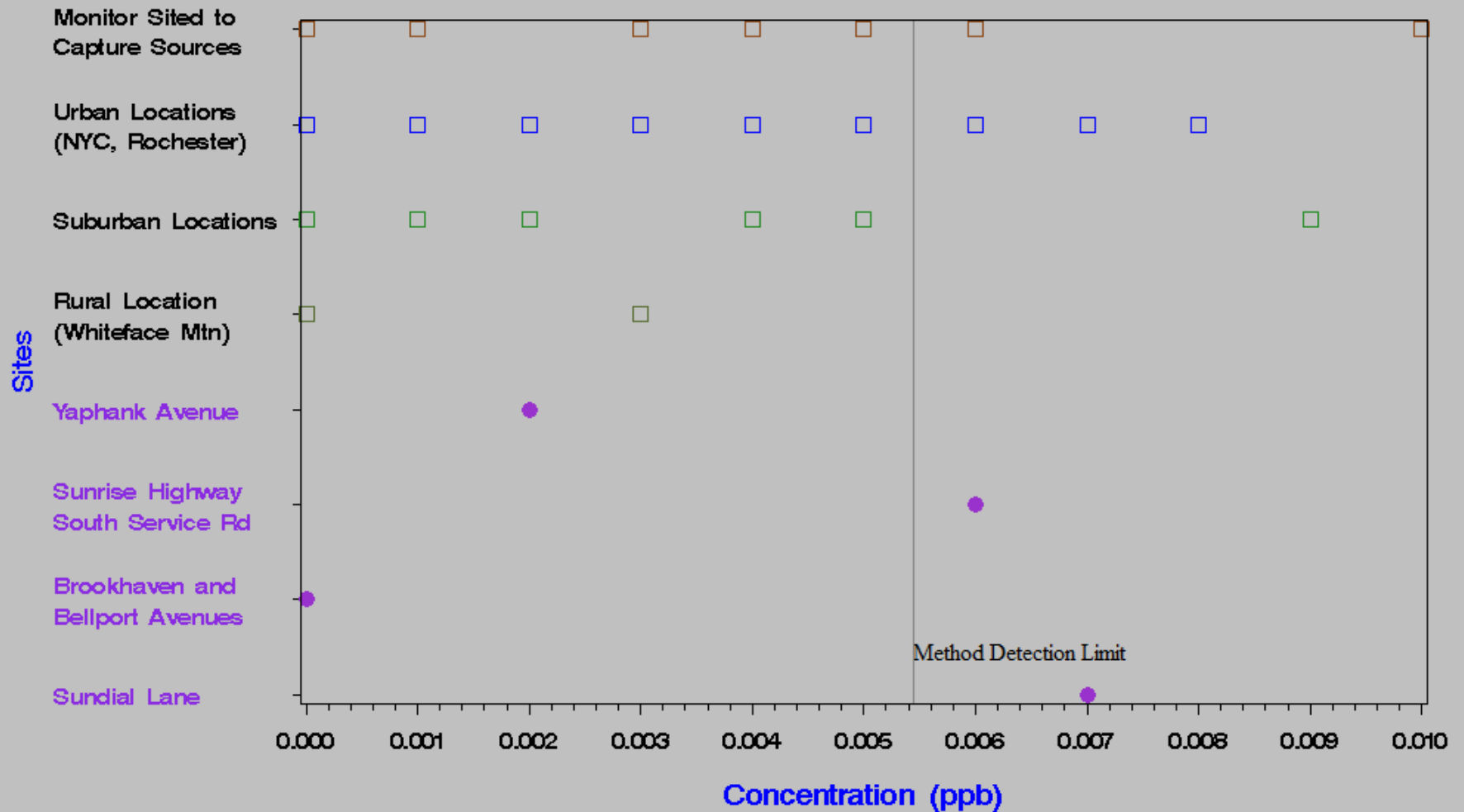
## m,p-Xylene

Comparison — Brookhaven Community Groups CAS 1-hour Sampling with  
DEC 2011 Toxics Network 24-hour Sampling



## Methyl Tert Butyl Ether

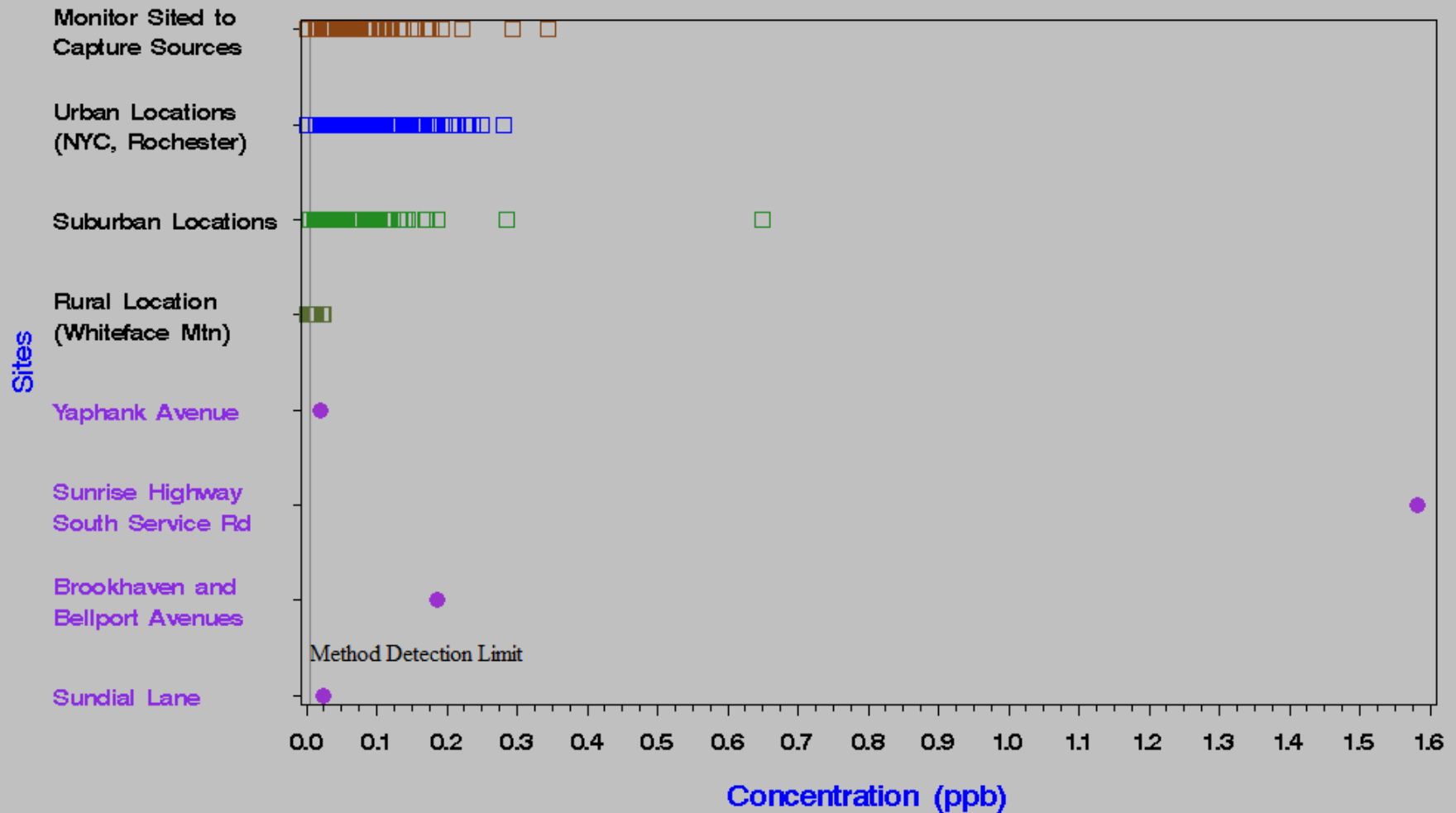
**Comparison — Brookhaven Community Groups CAS 1—hour Sampling with  
DEC 2011 Toxics Network 24—hour Sampling**



|                       |                            |             |              |
|-----------------------|----------------------------|-------------|--------------|
| <b>Classification</b> | ● ● ● Community Air Screen | □ □ □ Rural | □ □ □ Source |
|                       | □ □ □ Suburban             | □ □ □ Urban |              |

o—Xylene

Comparison — Brookhaven Community Groups CAS 1—hour Sampling with  
DEC 2011 Toxics Network 24—hour Sampling



Classification

• • •

Community Air Screen

□ □ □

Suburban

□ □ □

Rural

□ □ □

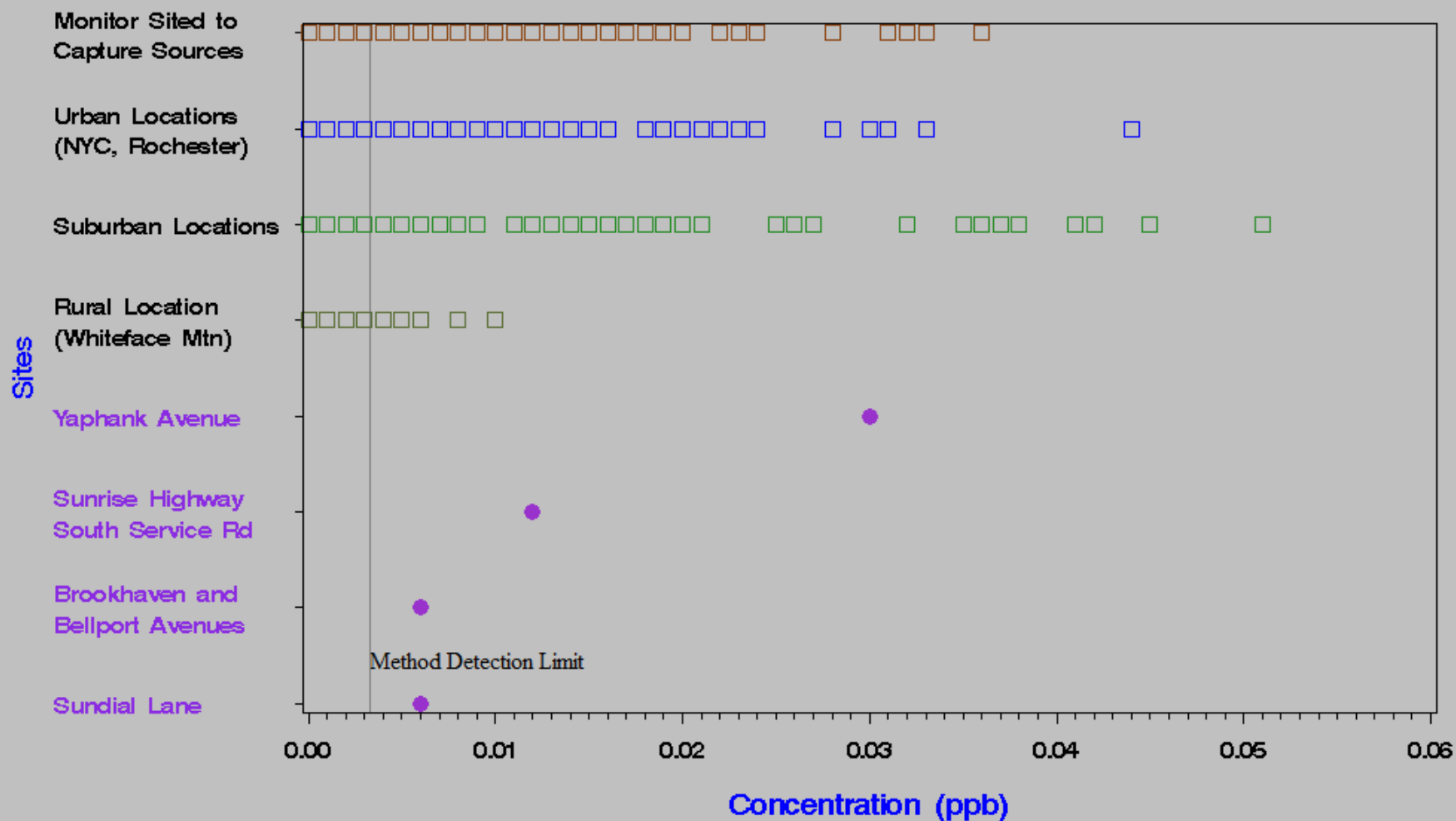
Urban

□ □ □

Source

## Styrene

Comparison — Brookhaven Community Groups CAS 1-hour Sampling with  
DEC 2011 Toxics Network 24-hour Sampling



Classification

• • •

Community Air Screen

□ □ □

Rural

□ □ □

Source

□ □ □

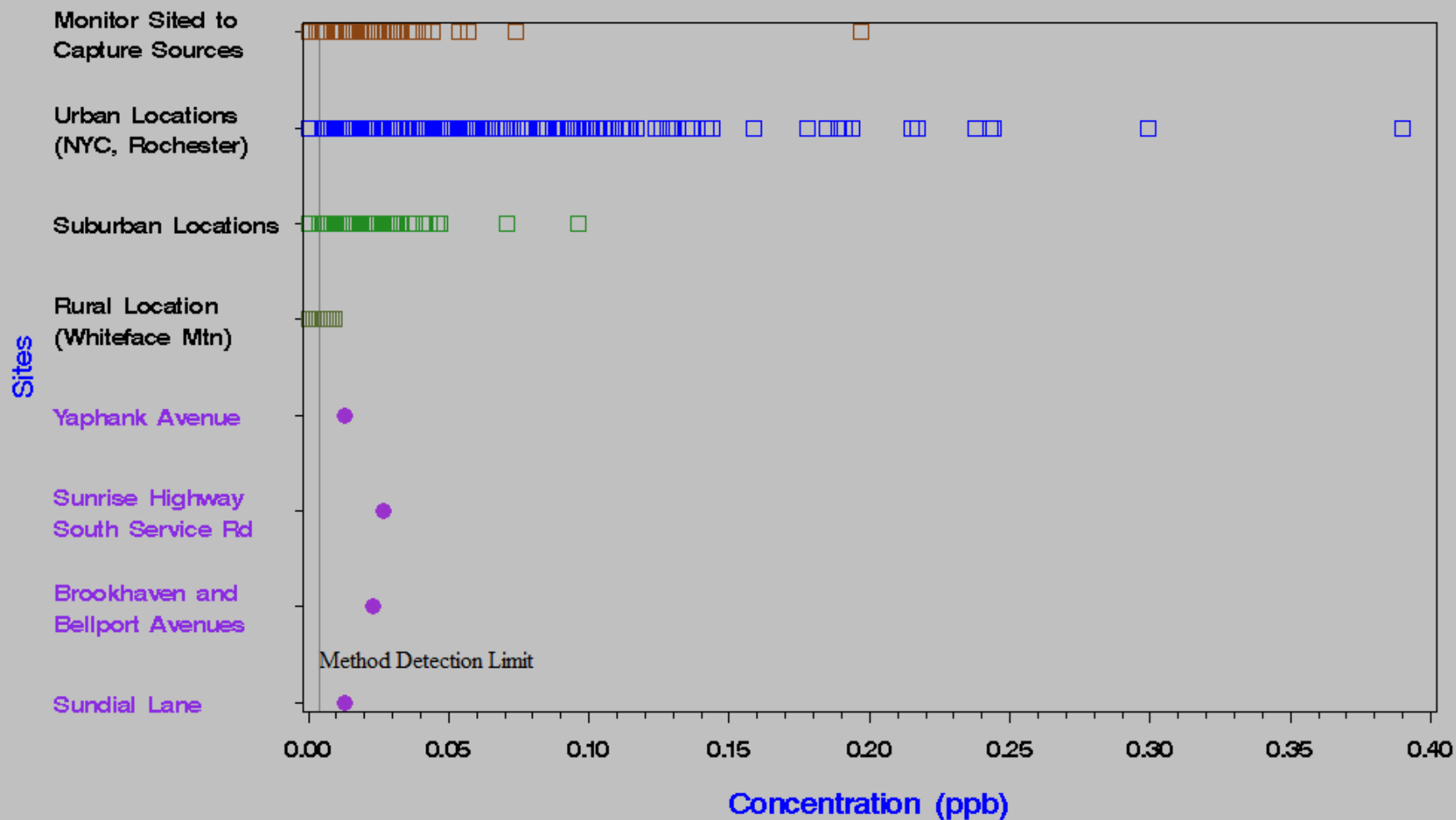
Suburban

□ □ □

Urban

## Tetrachloroethylene

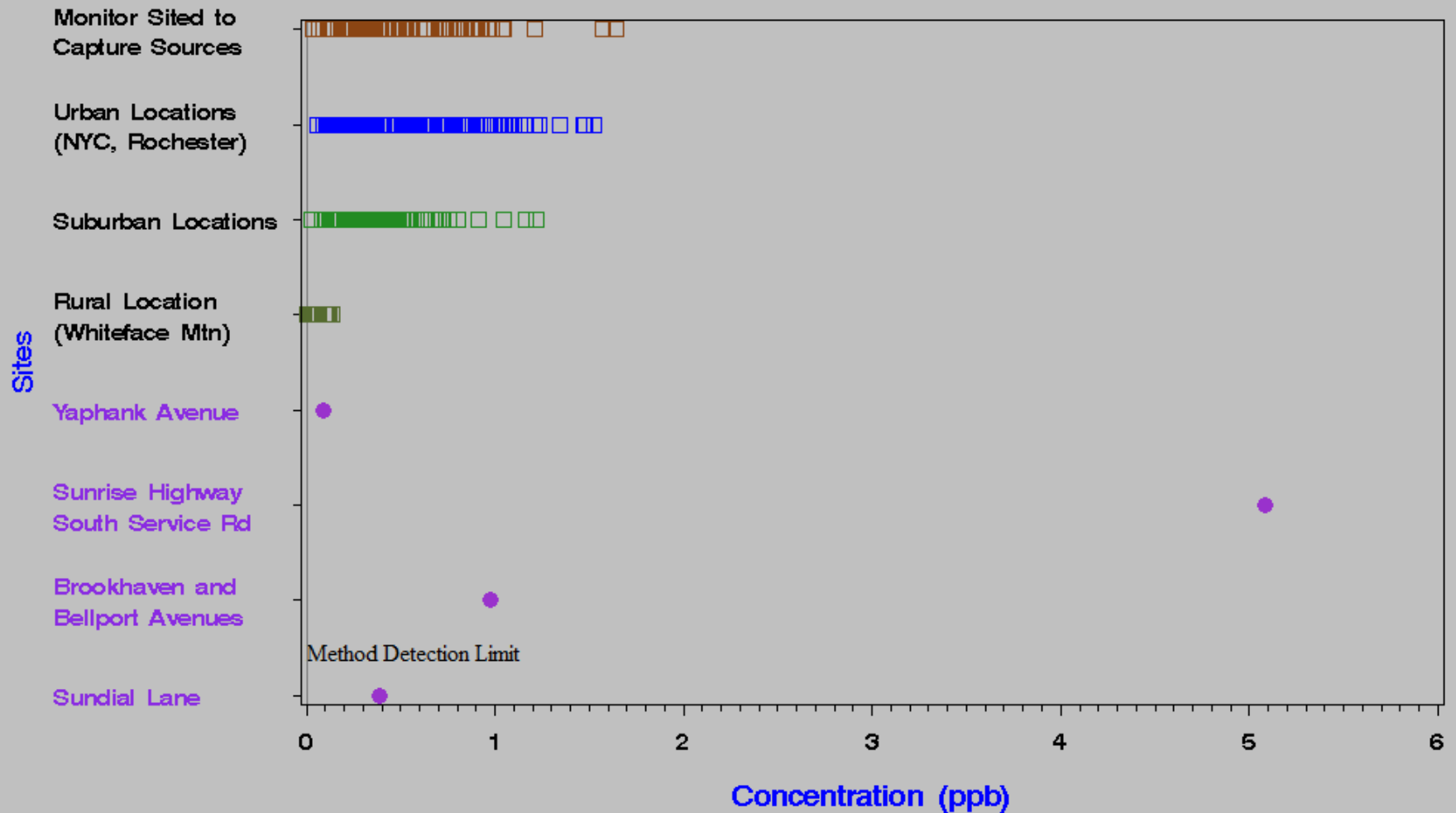
**Comparison — Brookhaven Community Groups CAS 1—hour Sampling with  
DEC 2011 Toxics Network 24—hour Sampling**



|                       |                            |             |              |
|-----------------------|----------------------------|-------------|--------------|
| <b>Classification</b> | ● ● ● Community Air Screen | □ □ □ Rural | □ □ □ Source |
|                       | □ □ □ Suburban             | □ □ □ Urban |              |

## Toluene

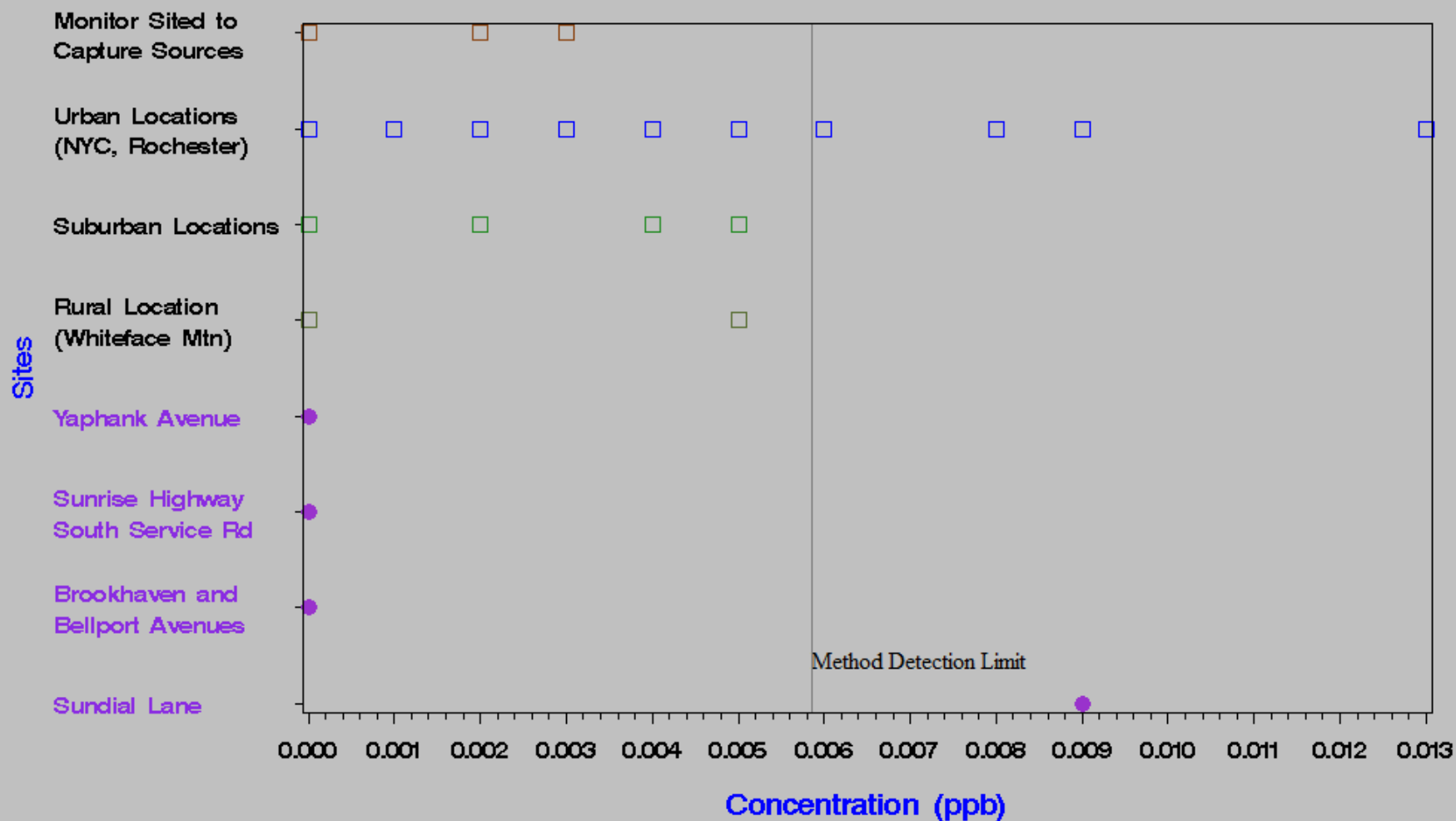
**Comparison — Brookhaven Community Groups CAS 1—hour Sampling with  
DEC 2011 Toxics Network 24—hour Sampling**



|                |                            |             |              |  |             |
|----------------|----------------------------|-------------|--------------|--|-------------|
| Classification | ● ● ● Community Air Screen | □ □ □ Rural | □ □ □ Source |  | □ □ □ Urban |
|                | □ □ □ Suburban             |             |              |  |             |

## trans 1,2—Dichloroethylene

**Comparison — Brookhaven Community Groups CAS 1—hour Sampling with  
DEC 2011 Toxics Network 24—hour Sampling**



Classification



Community Air Screen



Suburban



Rural



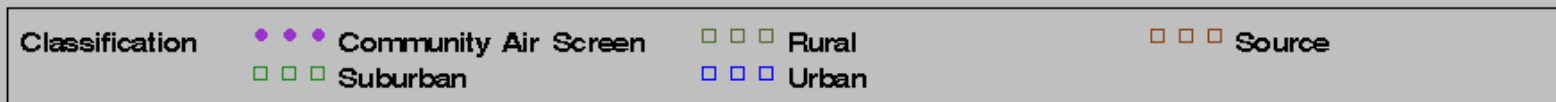
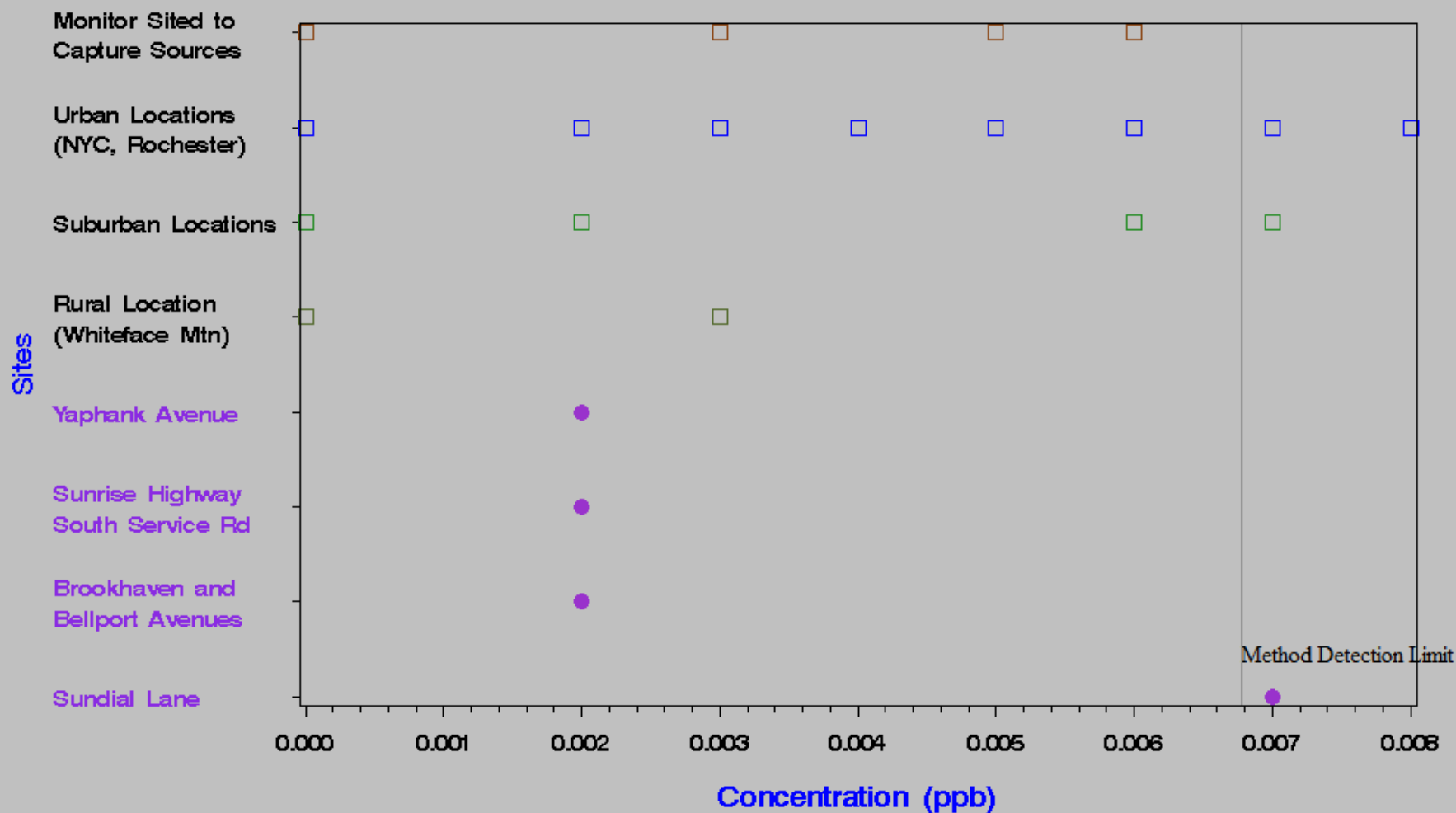
Urban



Source

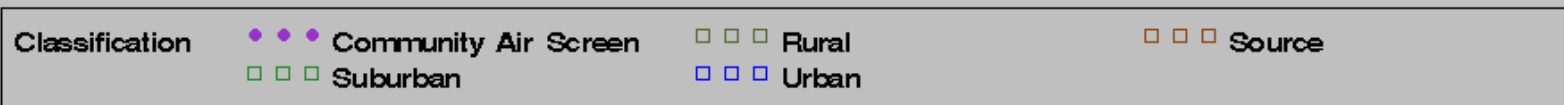
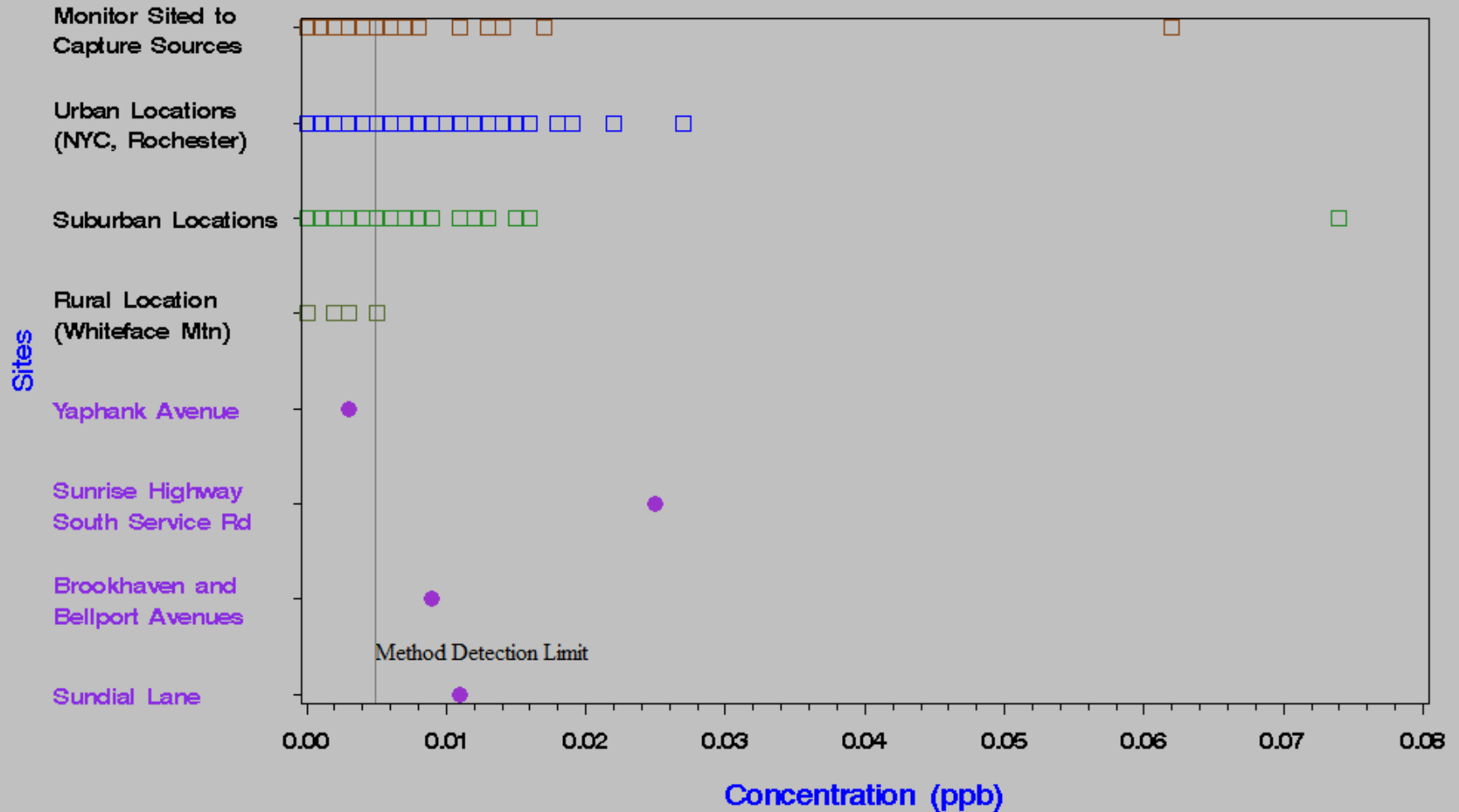
## trans1,3—Dichloropropylene

Comparison — Brookhaven Community Groups CAS 1—hour Sampling with  
DEC 2011 Toxics Network 24—hour Sampling



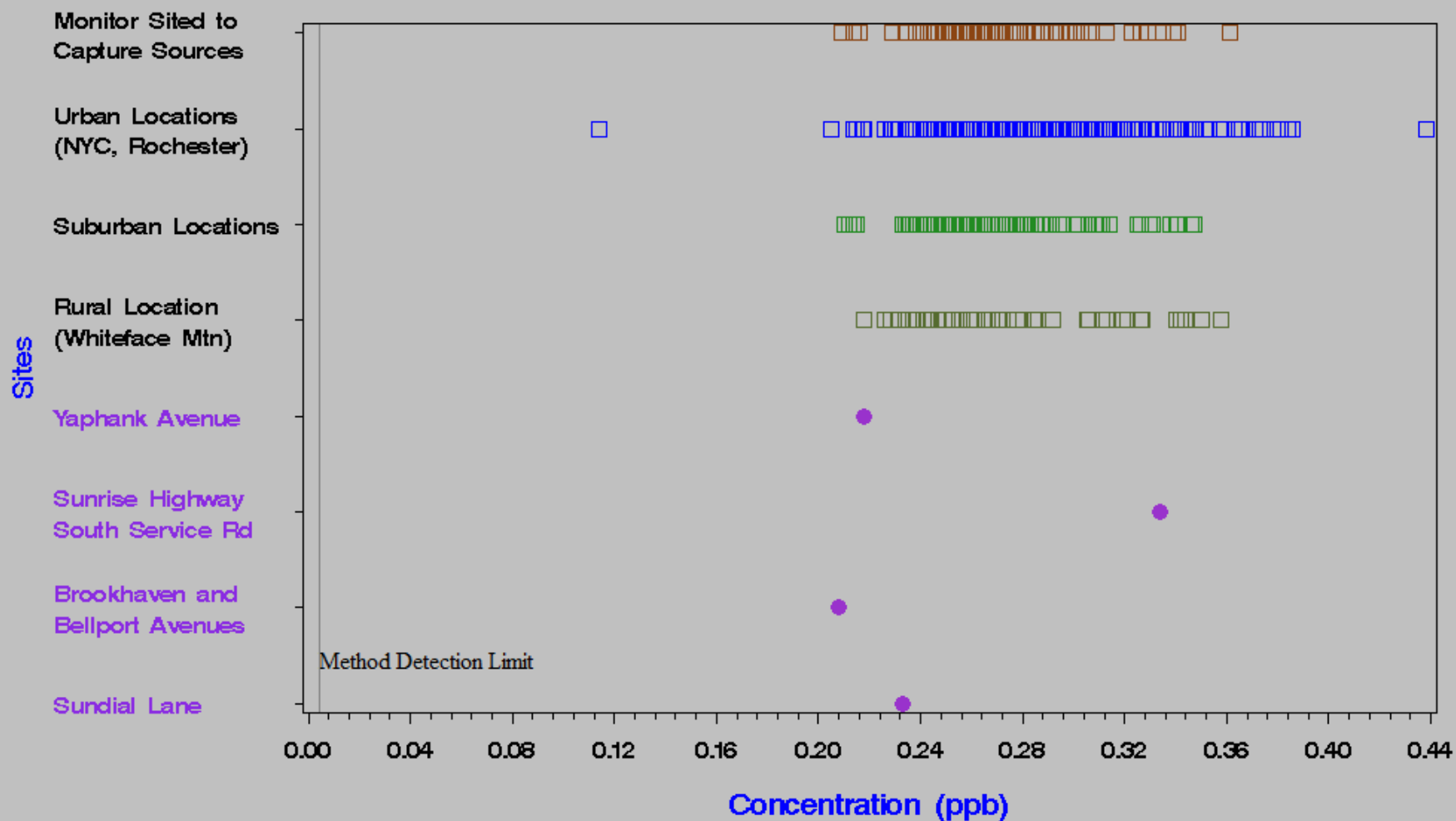
## Trichloroethylene

Comparison — Brookhaven Community Groups CAS 1-hour Sampling with  
DEC 2011 Toxics Network 24-hour Sampling



## Trichlorofluoromethane

Comparison — Brookhaven Community Groups CAS 1-hour Sampling with  
DEC 2011 Toxics Network 24-hour Sampling



Classification



Community Air Screen



Rural



Source

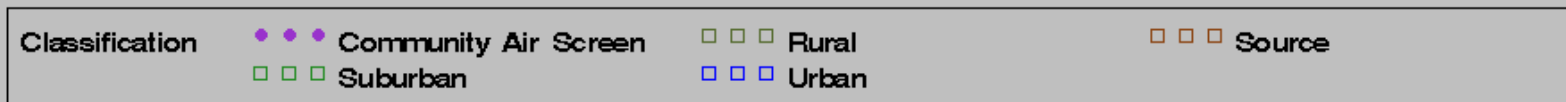


Suburban



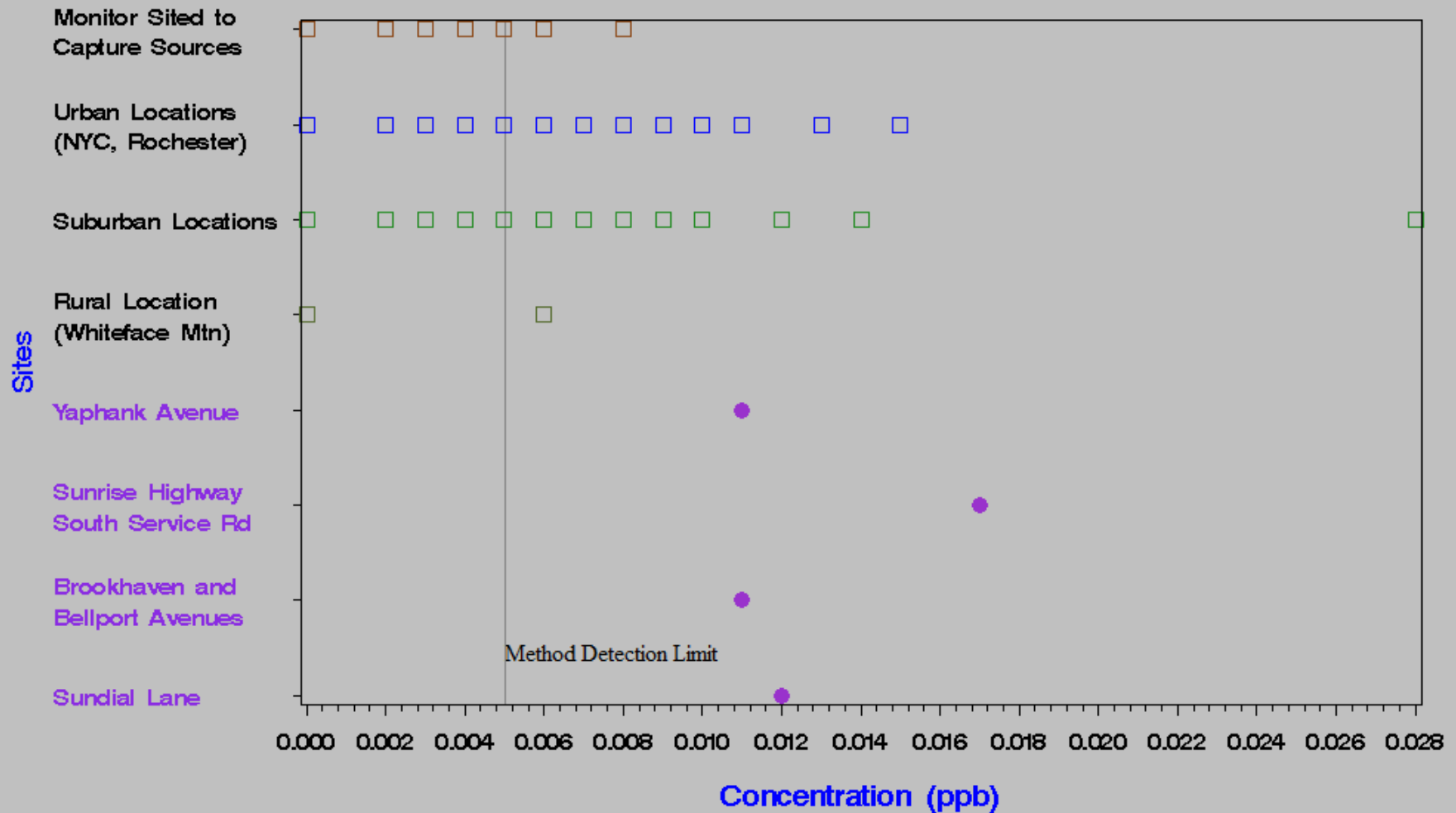
Urban

**Comparison – Brookhaven Community Groups CAS 1–hour Sampling with  
DEC 2011 Toxics Network 24–hour Sampling**



## Vinyl Chloride

**Comparison — Brookhaven Community Groups CAS 1—hour Sampling with  
DEC 2011 Toxics Network 24—hour Sampling**



|                       |                            |             |              |
|-----------------------|----------------------------|-------------|--------------|
| <b>Classification</b> | • • • Community Air Screen | □ □ □ Rural | □ □ □ Source |
|                       | □ □ □ Suburban             | □ □ □ Urban |              |